

## Method #1: Laplace Transform

Note: when you take the Laplace transform of a vector you take the Laplace of each component.

$$\mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} = \hat{x}(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{L}\{x_1(t)\} \\ \mathcal{L}\{x_2(t)\} \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{L}\{x_n(t)\} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1(s) \\ \hat{x}_2(s) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{x}_n(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

If  $A$  is constant —

$$\mathcal{L}\{Ax(t)\} = A \mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} = A \hat{x}(s)$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\dot{x}(t)\} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{L}\{\dot{x}_1(t)\} \\ \mathcal{L}\{\dot{x}_2(t)\} \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{L}\{\dot{x}_n(t)\} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s\hat{x}_1(s) - x_1(0) \\ s\hat{x}_2(s) - x_2(0) \\ \vdots \\ s\hat{x}_n(s) - x_n(0) \end{bmatrix} = s\hat{x}(s) - x_0$$

$\hat{x}, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$= sI \hat{x}(s) - x_0$$

$I = n \times n$  identity matrix

Remember if:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

(let  $t_0 = 0$  (time invariant so we can do this))

Then soln:

$$x(t) = \Phi(t, 0)x_0 = e^{At}x_0$$

Taking the Laplace transform of  $\dot{x} = Ax$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\dot{x}(t)\} = s\hat{x}(s) - x_0 = A\hat{x}(s)$$

$$(sI - A)\hat{x}(s) = x_0 \quad (\text{gathering terms})$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{x}(s) = (sI - A)^{-1}x_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{x}(s)$$

$$x(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{(sI - A)^{-1}\}x_0 \quad (\text{take the inverse Laplace})$$

$$\text{But, } x(t) = \Phi(t, 0)x_0 = e^{At}x_0$$

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

Example:

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

$$T^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(T)}{\det(T)}$$

$$e^{At} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ (sI - A)^{-1} \right\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} s & -1 \\ 2 & s+3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right\}$$

$$= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\begin{bmatrix} s+3 & 1 \\ -2 & s \end{bmatrix}}{s^2 + 3s + 2} \right\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{s+3}{(s+2)(s+1)} & \frac{1}{(s+2)(s+1)} \\ \frac{-2}{(s+2)(s+1)} & \frac{s}{(s+2)(s+1)} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Use partial fraction expansion to separate denominators —

Example:  
an element

$$\frac{s+3}{(s+2)(s+1)} = \frac{a}{(s+2)} + \frac{b}{(s+1)} = \frac{a(s+1) + b(s+2)}{(s+2)(s+1)} = \frac{s+3}{(s+2)(s+1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow a(s+1) + b(s+2) = s+3$$

$$(a+b)s + (a+2b) = s+3 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a+b = 1 \\ a+2b = 3 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} b = 2 \\ a = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{s+1} + \frac{-1}{s+2} & \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2} \\ \frac{-2}{s+1} + \frac{2}{s+2} & \frac{-1}{s+1} + \frac{2}{s+2} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

\* this is in a format that we can easily take the inverse Laplace.

\* Take the inverse Laplace of each element.

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{-t} - 1e^{-2t} & e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \\ -2e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} & -e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: The roots of  $(sI - A) \Rightarrow \det(sI - A) = 0$  are the same as the  $e$ -values of  $A$ .

- These are the modes of our system — if we push the system with a given input  $u$  then it is going to move as a linear combination of the eigenvalues of  $A$ .

## Method #2: Cayley-Hamilton:

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem: Given a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .

The matrix  $A$  satisfies its own characteristic equation.

where characteristic equation  $\Rightarrow$

$$P_A(s) = \det(sI - A) = a_0 s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + a_2 s^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} s + a_n = 0$$

$$P_A(A) = 0$$

i.e. you can plug  $A$  in for  $s$  and you will get zero.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad w/ \quad p(s) = s^2 + 2s + 5 \quad + \quad A^2 = A \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^2 + 2A + 5I = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 14 \\ 21 & 35 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P(s) = \det(sI - A) = s^2 - 5s - 2$$

— Plug in for  $A$

$$P(A) = A^2 - 5A - 2I = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{bmatrix} - 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

How does this help us?

Implication: Powers of  $A$ ,  $A^k$  for  $k \geq n$  can be written as linear combinations of the powers  $A^i$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$

$$a_0 A^n + a_1 A^{n-1} + a_2 A^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} A + a_n I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^n = \frac{1}{a_0} (-a_1 A^{n-1} - a_2 A^{n-2} - \dots - a_{n-1} A - a_n I)$$

— And every higher power ~~can be~~ ( $k \geq n$ ) can be written as a linear combination of lower powers.

$$\Rightarrow A^{n+1} = A A^n = \frac{A}{a_0} (-a_1 A^{n-1} - a_2 A^{n-2} - \dots - a_{n-1} A - a_n I) = 0$$

$$= -\frac{a_1}{a_0} A^n - \frac{a_2}{a_0} A^{n-1} - \dots - \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_0} A^2 - a_n A = 0$$

↑  
— plug in our solution to  $A^n$  here.

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} t^k A^k \Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \alpha_k(t) A^k$$

no longer an infinite sum.

↑  
- combination of the  $t$  values multiplied by the combination of lower power coefficients.

- How do we find these new coefficients?
- use the fact that  $P_A(\lambda_i) = 0$  if  $\lambda_i \in \text{eig}(A)$ , then if we have  $n$  distinct  $e$ -values we will have  $n$  linearly independent equations and can solve for the coefficients.

Example:

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

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \cancel{5(s+1)+2} = \cancel{s^2+s+2}$$

$$\cancel{\lambda(\lambda+3)+2} = \cancel{\lambda^2+\lambda+2} = 0$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & -1 \\ 2 & \lambda+3 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\lambda = -2, -1$$

$$\lambda(\lambda+3)+2 = \lambda^2+3\lambda+2 = 0$$

$$(\lambda+2)(\lambda+1) = 0$$

$$\boxed{\lambda = -2, -1} \quad n=2$$

$$e^{\lambda_1 t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \lambda_1 \Rightarrow e^{-2t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(-2)$$

$$e^{\lambda_2 t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \lambda_2 \Rightarrow e^{-t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(-1)$$

- Put into a matrix equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{(-2+1)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \\ 2e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e^{At} = \alpha_1 A + \alpha_0 I = (2e^{-t} - e^{-2t}) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} + (e^{-t} - e^{-2t}) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}}{(-2+1)} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \\ 2e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e^{At} = x_1 A + x_0 I = (e^{-t} - e^{-2t}) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} + (2e^{-t} - e^{-2t}) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left( \begin{array}{c|c} 2e^{-t} - e^{-2t} & e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \\ \hline -2e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} & -e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} \end{array} \right)$$

\* General way for finding the coefficients —

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lambda_1 & \lambda_1^2 & \dots & \lambda_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \lambda_2 & \lambda_2^2 & \dots & \lambda_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_n & \lambda_n^2 & \dots & \lambda_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0(t) \\ x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_n(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} \\ e^{\lambda_2 t} \\ \vdots \\ e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Vandermonde matrix

→ Solve for coefficients by inverting the Vandermonde matrix.

→ Only works when we have  $n$  distinct eigenvalues (i.e. none repeated)



# Method #3: Eigenvalue / Eigenvector

Review of e-vectors:

$$AV_k = \lambda_k V_k, \quad V_k \neq 0, \quad V_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(\lambda_k I - A)V_k = 0 \quad \text{*So, } V_k \text{ lives in the null space of the matrix } (\lambda_k I - A)$$

- Create a matrix of the eigenvectors

$$V = [V_1 \ V_2 \ V_3 \ \dots \ V_n]$$

$$AV = [AV_1 \ AV_2 \ AV_3 \ \dots \ AV_n] = [\lambda_1 V_1 \ \lambda_2 V_2 \ \dots \ \lambda_n V_n] = V\Lambda$$

$$\text{w/ } \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag} \{ \lambda_k \}_{k=1}^n$$

- If the e-values are distinct (non-repeatable) then the corresponding e-vectors are linearly independent.

- And  $V$  is nonsingular,  $\det V \neq 0$ ,  $V^{-1}$  exists.

$$\Rightarrow AV = V\Lambda \Rightarrow \Lambda = V^{-1}AV$$

$$A = V\Lambda V^{-1} \quad (\text{use this in the matrix exp. formula})$$

$$e^{At} = I + tA + \frac{1}{2}t^2 A^2 + \frac{1}{6}t^3 A^3 + \dots$$

$$= \underbrace{I + t(V\Lambda V^{-1}) + \frac{1}{2}t^2(V\Lambda V^{-1})(V\Lambda V^{-1}) + \frac{1}{6}t^3(V\Lambda V^{-1})(V\Lambda V^{-1})(V\Lambda V^{-1}) + \dots}_{\text{underbrace{V(I + t\Lambda + \frac{1}{2}t^2\Lambda^2 + \frac{1}{6}t^3\Lambda^3 + \dots)V^{-1}}}}$$

$$= V(I + t\Lambda + \frac{1}{2}t^2\Lambda^2 + \frac{1}{6}t^3\Lambda^3 + \dots)V^{-1}$$

$$= e^{\Lambda t} \quad (\text{by definition})$$

- And since this is a diagonal matrix, can easily write out what it is.

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

$V$  = matrix of linearly independent e-vectors  
 $\Lambda$  = diagonal matrix of e-values.

Example:

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

$$\det(sI - A) = \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 \Rightarrow \lambda = -2, -1 \quad (\text{computed as before})$$

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

Compute e-vector associated w/  $\lambda_1 = -2$ 

$$(\lambda_1 I - A)v_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} -2v_{11} - v_{12} &= 0 \\ 2v_{11} + v_{12} &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow 2v_{11} = -v_{12} \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑  
choose  $v_{11} = 1$

Compute e-vector for  $\lambda_2 = -1$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{21} \\ v_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_{21} + v_{22} = 0 \quad v_{21} = -v_{22}$$

$$v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad w/ \quad V^{-1} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}{(-1+2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2t} & e^{-t} \\ -2e^{-2t} & -e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{-t} - e^{-2t} & e^{-t} - e^{-2t} \\ -2e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} & -e^{-t} + 2e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Properties of the matrix exponential: (Recap)

$$\#1 \quad \frac{d}{dt} e^{At} = A e^{At} = e^{At} A$$

$$\#2 \quad e^{A \cdot 0} = I$$

$$\#3 \quad e^{At} e^{Az} = e^{A(t+z)}$$

$$\#4 \quad \text{For every } t \in \mathbb{R}, \quad e^{At} \text{ is nonsingular (i.e. has an inverse)}$$

$$(e^{At})^{-1} = e^{-At} \quad * \text{ to invert simply put through a negative sign.}$$

Discrete time:

$$\text{Recall } \Phi(t, t_0) = \begin{cases} I & t = t_0 \\ A(t-1)A(t-2) \dots A(t_0+1)A(t_0) & t > t_0 \end{cases}$$

Define  $A^0 = I$ , then

$$\Phi(t, t_0) = A^{t-t_0}$$

Methods for computing  $A^t$ :

#1 z-transform —

$$A^t = Z^{-1} \{ z(zI - A)^{-1} \}$$

#2 e-value / e-vectors —

$$A^t = P \Lambda^t P^{-1}$$

#3 Cayley-Hamilton

(for  $t \geq n$ )