

ECE240 Introduction to Linear Dynamical Systems

Lecture 5: LTI System Solution

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Outline

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- Matrix Exponential

2 Mode Decomposition

- Implications of Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- 2×2 Linear System
- Jacobian Determinant

3 Forced System

- Variation of Constants Formula

Homogeneous System

System without input:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t), \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0, \quad \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

We seek a function $\Phi(t)$ such that

$$\dot{\Phi}(t) = \mathbf{A}\Phi(t), \quad \Phi(0) = \mathbf{I},$$

so that the solution is

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \Phi(t)\mathbf{x}_0.$$

Goal: Find $\Phi(t)$ explicitly \Rightarrow matrix exponential $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$.

Series Definition of the Matrix Exponential

Define:

$$e^{\mathbf{A}t} := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\mathbf{A}t)^k}{k!} = I + \mathbf{A}t + \frac{\mathbf{A}^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mathbf{A}^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Differentiate term by term:

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{A}^k t^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} = \mathbf{A} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{A}^k t^k}{k!} = \mathbf{A} e^{\mathbf{A}t}.$$

Initial condition: $e^{\mathbf{A} \times 0} = \mathbf{I}$. Hence, $\Phi(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ satisfies

$$\dot{\Phi}(t) = \mathbf{A}\Phi(t), \quad \Phi(0) = \mathbf{I}.$$

Various Definitions of the Matrix Exponential

(Optional – for reference only)

Definition Type	Expression	Key Idea / Use
Series	$e^{\mathbf{A}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{A}^k}{k!}$	Fundamental definition; always convergent.
Differential Equation	$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}(t), \mathbf{X}(0) = \mathbf{I}$	Defines the state transition operator in linear systems.
Limit	$e^{\mathbf{A}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\mathbf{I} + \frac{\mathbf{A}}{n} \right)^n$	Connects to continuous compounding and growth.
Diagonalization (special case)	$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^{-1}, e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{V}e^{\Lambda t}\mathbf{V}^{-1}$	Applies when \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable; shows modal evolution.
Jordan Form (general case)	$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{P}^{-1}, e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{P}e^{\mathbf{J}t}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$	Handles non-diagonalizable \mathbf{A} using Jordan blocks.
Laplace Transform	$e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1}]$	Used in control and system theory for transition matrices.

Solution for $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

Since $\Phi(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ satisfies the matrix differential equation, the state trajectory is

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(0)}.$$

Verification:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t), \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{I} \times \mathbf{x}(0),$$

where $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ = **state transition matrix**: describes how the state evolves continuously with time.

Semigroup Property of the Matrix Exponential

- **Property:**

$$e^{\mathbf{A}(t_1+t_2)} = e^{\mathbf{A}t_1} e^{\mathbf{A}t_2}$$

- The family $\{e^{\mathbf{A}t} : t \geq 0\}$ forms a **one-parameter semigroup** of linear operators. If $t \in \mathbb{R}$, it forms a **one-parameter group**.
- **Implications:** $e^{\mathbf{A} \times 0} = \mathbf{I}$, $(e^{\mathbf{A}t})^{-1} = e^{-\mathbf{A}t}$, $(e^{\mathbf{A}t})^n = e^{\mathbf{A}nt}$.
- **In linear systems:** for $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{Ax}$,

$$\mathbf{x}(t_1 + t_2) = e^{\mathbf{A}t_1} e^{\mathbf{A}t_2} \mathbf{x}(0)$$

The state transition over two intervals composes naturally.

- **Caution:** $e^{\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}} = e^{\mathbf{A}} e^{\mathbf{B}}$ only if $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA}$.
- **Example:**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos t & -\sin t \\ \sin t & \cos t \end{bmatrix}$$

is the rotation matrix with angle t

Rotating by t_1 then t_2 equals rotating by $t_1 + t_2$.

Modal Derivation

Consider $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{Ax} = (\mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^{-1})\mathbf{x}$, let $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{Vy}(t) \implies \dot{\mathbf{y}}(t) = \Lambda\mathbf{y}(t)$ (decoupled dynamics: $\dot{y}_i(t) = \lambda_i y_i(t)$.)

Hence,

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{y}(0) \implies \mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{V} e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{x}(0) = e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{x}(0),$$

where $e^{\Lambda t} = \text{diag}(e^{\lambda_1 t}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n t})$.

- Vector $\mathbf{y}(0) = \mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{x}(0)$ collects the coordinates of the initial state expressed in the eigenbasis.

Thus,

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{V} e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{y}(0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{y_i(0) e^{\lambda_i t} \mathbf{v}_i}_{\mathbf{x}_i^{\text{mode}}(t)}.$$

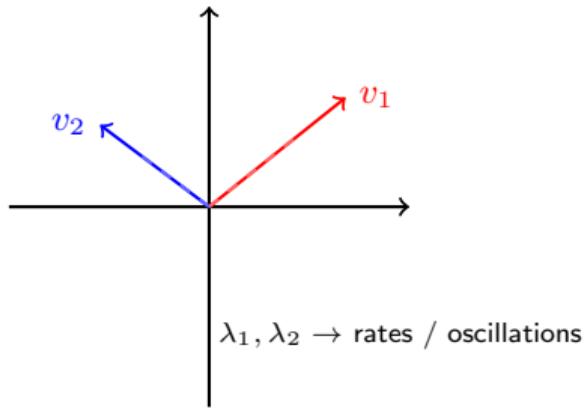
- The full trajectory is a superposition of these independent modes

$$\mathbf{x}_i^{\text{mode}}(t) = y_i(0) e^{\lambda_i t} \mathbf{v}_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Geometric and Physical Interpretation

In $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$:

- Each eigenvector \mathbf{v}_i defines an invariant direction in state space.
- Along \mathbf{v}_i , the trajectory scales as $e^{\lambda_i t}$, where eigenvalue λ_i controls time behavior.
- 1) eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_i \Rightarrow$ mode shape/direction; 2) eigenvalues $\lambda_i \Rightarrow$ growth, decay, or oscillation rate.



Eigen-decomposition decouples dynamics into independent exponential modes.

Dynamic Implications of Eigenvalues

Eigenvalue λ_i	Time behavior	Interpretation
$\lambda_i < 0$ (real)	$e^{\lambda_i t}$ decays	Stable (energy dissipates)
$\lambda_i > 0$ (real)	$e^{\lambda_i t}$ grows	Unstable (diverges)
$\lambda_i = 0$	Constant	Marginally stable
$\lambda_i = \alpha \pm j\beta$	$e^{\alpha t} \cos(\beta t), e^{\alpha t} \sin(\beta t)$	Oscillation (freq. β , damping α)

System stability:

$$\text{Stable} \iff \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_i) < 0, \forall i$$

Geometric view:

- Each eigenvector \mathbf{v}_i : direction of independent motion.
- Each eigenvalue λ_i : exponential rate or frequency of that motion.

2×2 Linear System

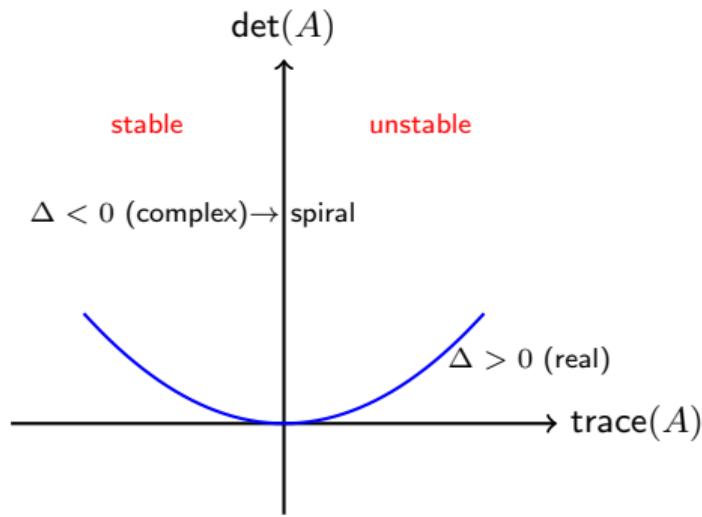
Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \implies \text{characteristic polynomial : } \lambda^2 - (\text{tr}\mathbf{A})\lambda + \det(\mathbf{A}) = 0 \implies$$

$$\text{two eigenvalues : } \lambda_{1,2} = \frac{\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) \pm \sqrt{(\text{tr}\mathbf{A})^2 - 4 \det(\mathbf{A})}}{2}$$

Interpretation:

- $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) \rightarrow$ shifts eigenvalues left/right
- $\det(\mathbf{A}) \rightarrow$ sets their product (sign \Rightarrow type of equilibrium)
- Discriminant $\Delta = (\text{tr}\mathbf{A})^2 - 4 \det(\mathbf{A})$ controls whether eigenvalues are real or complex



Stability Classification (2×2 System)

For $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ with

$$\lambda^2 - (\text{tr}\mathbf{A})\lambda + \det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$$

Type	$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$	$\det(\mathbf{A})$	$\Delta = (\text{tr}\mathbf{A})^2 - 4\det(\mathbf{A})$	Behavior
Stable node	< 0	> 0	> 0	Real and negative eigenvalues
Stable spiral	< 0	> 0	< 0	Complex, $\text{Re} < 0$
Center	$= 0$	> 0	< 0	Purely imaginary (oscillatory)
Unstable node/spiral	> 0	> 0	any	Divergent
Saddle point	any	< 0	> 0	One eigenvalue > 0 , one < 0

Key:

- $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) < 0 \rightarrow$ contraction (stable)
- $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) > 0 \rightarrow$ expansion (unstable)
- $\det(\mathbf{A}) < 0 \rightarrow$ opposite-sign eigenvalues \Rightarrow saddle

Trace and Determinant in Linear Dynamical Systems

Homogeneous system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t), \quad \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

Solution: $\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(0)$

If \mathbf{A} has eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$: then

$$\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i, \quad \det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$

Interpretation:

- $\text{trace}(\mathbf{A}) \rightarrow$ sum of eigenvalue real parts \rightarrow net expansion or decay rate
- $\det(\mathbf{A}) \rightarrow$ product of eigenvalues \rightarrow overall scaling or rotation sign

Together they give key insight into system stability.

Jacobian Determinant of the Matrix Exponential

- Consider the linear system: $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(0)$.
- The Jacobian matrix of the transformation $\mathbf{x}(0) \mapsto \mathbf{x}(t)$ is:

$$\mathbf{J}(t) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}(t)}{\partial \mathbf{x}(0)} = e^{\mathbf{A}t}$$

- Hence, the **Jacobian determinant** is:

$$\boxed{\det(e^{\mathbf{A}t}) = e^{t \times \text{tr}(\mathbf{A})}}$$

- Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = 1 \Rightarrow \det(e^{\mathbf{A}t}) = e^t$$

Interpretation:

- $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$ is the *divergence* of the vector field $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, i.e., total rate of local volume expansion.
- $|\det(e^{\mathbf{A}t})|$ measures the *volume scaling* in state space.

Physical Insights

Physical meaning:

$$\begin{cases} \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = 0 & \Rightarrow \text{trajectories preserve volume (e.g., rotations).} \\ \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) < 0 & \Rightarrow \text{trajectories contract (stable flow).} \\ \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) > 0 & \Rightarrow \text{trajectories expand apart (unstable flow)} \end{cases}$$

Why it matters in dynamical systems:

- Divergence describes whether energy or volume in the state space is conserved or dissipated.
- It's a local stability indicator: if divergence is negative, nearby trajectories converge.
- It connects linear algebra (trace), system stability (eigenvalues), and geometry (volume flow).
- **divergence \Leftarrow trace \Leftarrow determinant \Leftarrow volume change \Leftarrow stability**

Extension: Solution to Forced System (1/2)

Given LTI System $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t)$, $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$

Step 1: Guess solution with time-varying constant

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t} \mathbf{c}(t).$$

Step 2: Differentiate and substitute:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{c}(t) + e^{\mathbf{A}t}\dot{\mathbf{c}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t) \Rightarrow e^{\mathbf{A}t}\dot{\mathbf{c}}(t) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t) \Rightarrow \dot{\mathbf{c}}(t) = e^{-\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t)$$

Step 3: Integrate both sides from 0 to t :

$$\int_0^t \dot{\mathbf{c}}(\tau) d\tau = \int_0^t e^{-\mathbf{A}\tau} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau \implies \mathbf{c}(t) = \mathbf{c}(0) + \int_0^t e^{-\mathbf{A}\tau} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau.$$

Initial condition: $\mathbf{c}(0) = \mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0 \implies$

$$\mathbf{c}(t) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \int_0^t e^{-\mathbf{A}\tau} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau$$

Intuition: Multiply by $e^{-\mathbf{A}t}$ to *undo* the natural dynamics and isolate the input's effect in the moving frame.

Extension: Solution to Forced System (2/2)

Step 4: Substitute back, we get **variation of constants formula**:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \int_0^t e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau.}$$

Interpretation:

- First term \rightarrow homogeneous (natural) response.
- Second term \rightarrow particular (forced) response.
- The integral is a **convolution**:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{forced}}(t) = (e^{\mathbf{A}t} \mathbf{B}) * \mathbf{u}(t),$$

showing how past inputs are “filtered” by the system’s impulse response.

- The state transition matrix $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ governs both natural evolution and forced response.