# Linear system 

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## What is system theory?

System theory is the mathematical theory of dynamical system and feedback control.

A system is part of reality which we think to be a separated unit within this reality. The reality outside the system is called the surroundings. The interaction between system and surroundings is realized via quantities, quite of ten functions of time, which are called input and output. The system is influenced via the input(-functions) and the system has an influence on the surroundings by means of the output(-functions).


Mathematical system(s) theory is concerned with the study and control of input / output phenomena. There is no difference between the terminologies 'system theory' and 'systems theory' both are used in the (scientific) literature and will be used interchangeably. The emphasis in system(s) theory is on the dynamic behaviour of these phenomena, i.e. how do characteristic features (such as input and output) change in time and what are the relationships, also as functions of time.

## Ordinary Differential equations

## Scalar first-order equations

## Definition 1

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}(t)=f(t, x(t)) \quad f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad D \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
t: & & \text { independent variable } \\
x: & & \text { dependent variable } \\
\dot{x}(t) & = & \frac{d}{d t} x(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition $2 A$ solution to (1) is a function $x: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ if

1. $x$ is differentiable
2. $(t, x(t)) \in D$ for all $t \in J$
3. $\dot{x}(t)=f(t, x(t))$

Remark: The scalar differential equation has a simple geometric interpretation. Namely, if $x$ is a solution that passes through $\left(t_{0}, x_{0}\right)$ (in this case, $\left.x_{0}=x\left(t_{0}\right)\right)$, then $f\left(t_{0}, x_{0}\right)$ gives the slope of the curve x at this point. Following this interpretation, the slope $f(t, x)$ can be indicated for each $(t, x) \in D$. This leads to a so-called direction field. A solution to the differential equation can then be regarded as a curve that fits the direction field.

Definition 3 Initial value problem Given $\dot{x}(t)=f(t, x(t)),\left(t_{0}, x_{0}\right) \in D$ find a solution that satisfies the initial condition $x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0}$

Definition 4 Equation of the form $\dot{x}(t)=f(t)$ Let $\dot{x}(t)=f(t)$ be continuous in a given interval, then by the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$
\begin{aligned}
x(t) & =\int f(t) d t+c \\
& =F(t)+c
\end{aligned}
$$

with $\frac{d F}{d t}(t)=f(t)$
Definition 5 Equations of the form $\dot{x}(t)=g(x)$ autonomus Let $\dot{x}(t)=g(x(t))$ be continuous in a given interval, the it follows the following Property:
for $g(x) \neq 0$ any solution to (2) is of the form $H(x)=t+c$ for any $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\frac{d H}{d x}(1)=\frac{1}{g(x)}$
Definition 6 Separeble equations Let $\dot{x}(t)=f(t) g(t)$ be continuous in a given interval, then for $g(x) \neq 0$, any solution is of the form

$$
H(x)=F(t)+c \quad \text { with } \frac{d H}{d x}(x)=\frac{1}{g(x)}, \frac{d F}{d t}(t)=f(t)
$$

Remark: Remeber the separations of variables method:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d x}{d t}=f(t) g(x) & \rightarrow \int \frac{1}{g(x)} d x=\int f(t) d t \\
& \Leftrightarrow H(x)=F(t)+c
\end{aligned}
$$

## Linear scalar differential equations

A linear differential equation is a equation of the form

$$
\dot{x}(t)=a(t) x(t)+b(t) \quad \text { with } a, b: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text { continuous }
$$

The equation is said:

- Homogeneous if $b(t)=0$ for all $t$
- Nonhomogeneous if $b(t) \neq 0$ for all $t$

Remark: Roughly speaking, the differential equation is called linear because the terms related to the dependent variable $x$ (namely, both $x$ and $\dot{x}(t)$ ) only appear linearly. A more particular one is to use the definition of linearity with the differetial operator, i.e. $l(x)=$ $\dot{x}(t)-a(t) x$

Theorem 7 Solution to a homogenuos equation Consider the initial value problem

$$
\dot{x}(t)=a(t) x(t), \quad x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0}
$$

where $a: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $t_{0} \in J$. Then the unique solution is

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}\right)=x_{0} e^{F(t)}, \quad F(t)=\int_{t_{0}}^{t} a(\tau) d \tau
$$

for $t \in J$
Remark: Note that we can arrive at this solution by used of both separation variable method or the integrating factor method

Theorem 8 Solution to a nonhomogenuos equation Consider the initial value problem

$$
\dot{x}(t)=a(t) x(t)+b(t), \quad x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0}
$$

where $a: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $t_{0} \in J$. Then the unique solution is

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}\right)=x_{0} e^{F(t)}+e^{F(t)} \int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{-F(\tau)} b(\tau) d \tau, \quad F(t)=\int_{t_{0}}^{t} a(\tau) d \tau
$$

for $t \in J$
Remark: To solve this we can use the variation of costant method, i.e if $x(t)=c e^{F(t)}$ is the solution of the homogeneous equation, then by vary the constant we obtain $x(t)=z(t) e^{F(t)}$ and $z(t)=e^{-F(t)} x(t) \Rightarrow \dot{z}(t)=e^{-F(t)} b(t)$ form which we get that $z(t)=\int e^{-F(t)} b(t) d t+c$. Then we substitute $z(t)$ into the solution of the homogeneous equation, then we are done.

We can also use the homogeneous + particuar method, where the general solution can be written as $x(t)=x_{h}(t)+x_{p}(t)$, here follows the method:

1. Solve the homogeneous equation
2. Find one particular solution to the nonhomogenous equation using Variation of Constant.
3. Find the general solution

## Linear system

A linear system is a system of the following equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{x}(t)_{1} & =f_{1}\left(t, x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)\right) \\
& \vdots \\
\dot{x}(t)_{n} & =f_{n}\left(t, x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

In compact form we have $\dot{x}(t)=f(t, x(t))$ with $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, where

$$
x=\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right], f(t, x)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{1}\left(t, x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)\right) \\
\vdots \\
f_{n}\left(t, x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)\right)
\end{array}\right]
$$

One of the motivations for studying systems of differential equations is that they can be used to represent higher-order differential equations. To illustrate this, denote

$$
y^{(k)}(t)=\frac{d^{k} y}{d t^{k}}(t), \quad y^{n}(t)=f\left(t, y(t), \dot{y}(t), \ldots, y^{(n-1)}(t)\right)
$$

Then if we introduce

$$
x=\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
y \\
\dot{y} \\
\vdots \\
y^{(n-1)}
\end{array}\right]
$$

it yields,

$$
\dot{x}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{x}_{1} \\
\dot{x}_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\dot{x}_{n-1} \\
\dot{x}_{n}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{2} \\
x_{3} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n} \\
f\left(t, x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n-1}(t)\right)
\end{array}\right]
$$

Definition 9 Linear system in state-space form Let $u: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ be the input function and $y: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{p}$ be the output function, then the linear system is denoted by

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

with $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ denoted as the state function.
A linear system $\Sigma$ is often depicted as a simple block diagram, clearly indicating that a system

relates inputs and outputs.

## Definition 10 Non linear systems

$$
\Sigma_{n l}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=f(x(t), u(t)) \\
y(t)=h(x(t), u(t))
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$
Definition 11 Equilibrium Let $u(t)=\bar{u}$ be constant. Then, $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a equilibrium for $\bar{u}$ if

$$
f(\bar{x}, \bar{u})=0
$$

It means that $x(t)=\bar{x}$, i.e. constant solution, then $\dot{x}(t)=f(\bar{x}, \bar{u})=0$
Remark: in practice the equilibrium point is a point where you stay there for ever.
Definition 12 Linearization Let $(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$ be an equilibrium of non linear system $\Sigma_{n l}$. Then the linear system:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) & =A \tilde{x}(t)+B \tilde{u}(t) \\
\tilde{y}(t) & =C \tilde{x}(t)+D \tilde{u}(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

with state $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, input $\tilde{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$, output $\tilde{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$ and

$$
A=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) B=\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) C=\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) D=\frac{\partial h}{\partial u}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})
$$

where $A, B, C, D$ are Jacobian matrix.
Remark: $\tilde{y}(t)=y(t)-\bar{y}$ and $\tilde{x}(t)=x(t)-\bar{x} \tilde{u}=u(t)-\bar{u}$

## Solutions of homogeneous linear systems

Initial value problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t), \quad x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

i.e., find a differentiable function $x: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ s.t. (1)

Theorem 13 Consider the initial valued problem with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The function

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}\right)=e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} x_{0}
$$

$t \in \mathbb{R}$, is the unique solution to this initial value problem.
Remark: we have reach this theorem by first using the method of successive approximations from the solution of the initial valued problem $x(t)=x_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} A x(\tau) d \tau$, from which we get

$$
x^{(k)}(t)=\left(\sum_{l=0}^{k} \frac{A^{l}\left(t-t_{0}\right)^{l}}{l!}\right) x_{0}, \quad A^{0}=I
$$

where $x^{(k)}$ means the $k$ approximation of $x(t)$. Then we use the definition of matrix exponential.

## Solutions of nonhomogeneuos linear systems

Initial valued problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t), \quad x\left(t_{0}\right)=x_{0} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $u: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ given, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$
Theorem 14 The unique solution to IVP is given as

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)=e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} x_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d \tau
$$

## Output solution

Given $y(t)=C x(t)+D u(t)$ and the initial valued problem

$$
y\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)=C e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} x_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} C e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d \tau+D u(t)
$$

## Linearity \& time invariance

Theorem 15 Let $\left(t_{0}, x_{0}\right)$ and $\left(t_{0}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ and $u, u^{\prime}: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$. Then,

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, \alpha x_{0}+\alpha^{\prime} x_{0}^{\prime}, \alpha u+\alpha^{\prime} u^{\prime}\right)=\alpha x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)+\alpha^{\prime} x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)
$$

for all $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}$
Remark: $x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)=x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, 0\right)+x\left(t ; t_{0}, 0, u\right)$
Theorem 16 For any $\left(t_{0}, x_{0}\right)$ and $u: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$,

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}, u\right)=x\left(t-t_{0} ; 0, x_{0}, u_{t_{0}}\right)
$$

with $u_{t_{0}}(t)=u\left(t+t_{0}\right), t \in \mathbb{R}$
Remark: Time invariance means that whether we apply an input to the system now or T seconds from now, the output will be identical, i.e. the system is time invariant because the output does not depend on the particular time the input is applied.

## Computation of the matrix exponential

Definition 17 For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \quad\left(A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}\right)$

$$
e^{A t}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^{k} t^{k}}{k!}=I+A t+\frac{1}{2} A^{2} t^{2}+\cdots
$$

Lemma 18 Let $T \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be nonsigular and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Then,

$$
e^{T A T-1 t}=T e^{A t} T^{-1} \quad \text { for all } t
$$

Theorem 19 Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be diagonalizable. Then,

$$
x\left(t ; t_{0}, x_{0}\right)=e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} x_{0}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} c_{i} v_{i} e^{\lambda_{i}\left(t-t_{0}\right)}
$$

for some constants $c_{i}$ and $\left(\lambda_{i}, v_{i}\right)$ eigenpairs of $A$. Where $T c=x_{0}$.
Lemma 20 The following holds for any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$,

1. $\left(e^{A t}\right)^{-1}=e^{-A t}$
2. $\frac{d}{d t}\left\{e^{A t}\right\}=A e^{A t}=e^{A t} A$
3. $e^{A t} B=B e^{A t}$ if $A$ and $B$ commute

## Lemma 21

1. Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ commute, Then

$$
e^{A t} e^{B t}=e^{(A+B) t}
$$

2. $e^{A t} e^{A s}=e^{A(t+s)}$ for all $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$

Definition 22 The Jordan canonical form A Jordan block $\left(J_{k}(\lambda) \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times k}\right)$ is the matrix

$$
J_{k}\left(\lambda_{k}\right)=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
\lambda_{k} & 1 & & & \\
& \lambda_{k} & 1 & & \\
& & \ddots & \ddots & \\
& & & \ddots & 1 \\
& & & & \lambda_{k}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $J_{k}(\lambda)=\lambda I+N$ with $N^{k}=0$

## Lemma 23

$$
e^{J_{k}(\lambda) t}=e^{\lambda t}\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & t & \frac{t^{2}}{2!} & \cdots & \frac{t^{k-2}}{(k-2)!} & \frac{t^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \\
0 & 1 & t & \ddots & & \vdots \\
& & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
& & \ddots & \ddots & \frac{t^{2}}{2!} \\
& & & \ddots & t \\
& & & & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Theorem 24 For any $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there exits a nonsigular $T \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $A=T J T^{-1}$ with

$$
J=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
J_{k_{1}}\left(\lambda_{1}\right) & & & \\
& J_{k_{2}}\left(\lambda_{2}\right) & & \\
& & \ddots & \\
& & & J_{k_{r}}\left(\lambda_{n}\right)
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $\lambda_{i} \in \sigma(A)$, where $\sigma(A)=\{\lambda \mid A v=\lambda v$ for $v \neq 0\}$ is the spectrum. Conversely, if $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$, then $\lambda=\lambda_{i}$ for some $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, r\}$ and $n=k_{1}+\cdots+k_{r}$

## Computing the matrix exponetial $e^{A t}$

1. Compute the Jordan canonical form $A=T J T^{-1}$
2. For each Jordan block $J_{k_{i}}\left(\lambda_{i}\right)$, compute $e^{J_{k_{i}}\left(\lambda_{i}\right) t}$
3. Compute $e^{A t}$ using

$$
\begin{aligned}
e^{A t}=e^{T J T^{-1} t} & =T e^{J t} T^{-1} \\
& =T\left[\begin{array}{lll}
e^{J_{k_{1}}\left(\lambda_{1}\right) t} & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & e^{J_{k_{r}}\left(\lambda_{r}\right) t}
\end{array}\right] T^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Stability

Definition 25 Let consider a system without input, i.e. $\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)$, this system is called

1. stable if each $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, there exists $M>0$ s.t.

$$
\left|x\left(t ; x_{0}\right)\right|=\left|e^{A t} x_{0}\right| \leq M \quad \text { for all } t \geq 0
$$

2. asymptotically stable if, for each $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} x\left(t ; x_{0}\right)=\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{A t} x_{0}=0
$$

where $x\left(t ; x_{0}\right)=e^{A t} x_{0}$
Remark: the stability of a system is define on the system without input.
Observations:

1. Denote by $\left(e^{A t}\right)_{i j}$ the element $i, j$ in $e^{A t}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\left(e^{A t}\right)_{i j}\right| \leq m \quad \text { for all } i, j \Rightarrow \dot{x}(t)=A x(t) \text { is stable } \\
& \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}\left(e^{A t}\right)_{i j}=0 \text { for all } i, j \Rightarrow \dot{x}(t)=A x(t) \text { is asymptotically stable }
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Each $\left(e^{A t}\right)_{i j}$ is a sum of terms of the form $t^{k} e^{\lambda t}$ with $k$ non negative integer and $\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of $A$

Lemma 26 Consider $t \mapsto t^{k} e^{\lambda t}$ with $k \geq 0$,

1. if $\Re(\lambda)<0$, then $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{k} e^{\lambda t}=0$ and $\left|t^{k} e^{\lambda t}\right| \leq M$ for all $t \geq 0$
2. For any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\Re(\lambda)<\alpha$,

$$
\left|t^{k} e^{\lambda t}\right| \leq M e^{\alpha t} \quad \text { for all } t \geq 0
$$

## Denote

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{C}_{-}=\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \Re(z)<0\} \\
& \overline{\mathbb{C}}_{-}=\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \Re(z) \leq 0\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 27 The system $\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)$ is

1. Stable if only if $\sigma(A) \subset \overline{\mathbb{C}}_{-}$and every $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ with $\Re(\lambda)=0$ is semisimple $(a \lambda=g \lambda)$
2. asymptotically stable if and only if $\sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$. In this case, $\exists M, \gamma>0$ s.t. $\left\|e^{A t}\right\| \leq$ $M e^{-\gamma t}, t \geq 0$

## Routh-Harwitz criterion

Definition 28 A polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(s)=a_{n} s^{n}+a_{n-1} s^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{1} s+a_{0} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{R}, a_{n} \neq 0$ is called stable if all its roots $\left(p(\lambda)=0\right.$ have negative real part : $\sigma(p) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$

Theorem 29 Routh-Harwitz The polynomial (4) is stable if and only if

1. $a_{n-1} \neq 0$ and has the same sign as $a_{n}$, i.e, $a_{n} a_{n-1}>0$
2. the polynomial

$$
q(s)=a_{n-1} p(s)-a_{n}\left(a_{n-1} s^{n}+a_{n-3} s^{n-2}+a_{n-5} s^{n-4}+\ldots\right)
$$ is stable

Lemma 30 Let $p$ with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ be stable. Then, all its coefficients are nonzero and have the same sign

## Interval polynomials

Let $a_{i}^{-}, a_{i}^{+} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, i=1, \ldots, n$ satisfy $a_{i}^{-} \leq a_{i}^{+}$and define the set of polynomials $\mathcal{P}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{P}(s)=\left\{a_{n} s^{n}+a_{n-1} s^{n}+\cdots+a_{1} s+a_{0} \mid a_{i}^{-} \leq a_{i} \leq a_{i}^{+} \text {for all } i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}\right\} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, the stability of the set $\mathcal{P}$ is defined as follows
Definition 31 The set of polynomials $\mathcal{P}$ as in (5) is called stable if each polynomial in the set is stable, i.e., if $p$ is stable for all $p \in \mathcal{P}$

Theorem 32 Kharitonov's theorem The set of polynomials $\mathcal{P}$ as in (5) is stable if and only if the following four polynomials are all stable:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p^{++}(s)=a_{0}^{+}+a_{1}^{+} s+a_{2}^{-} s^{2}+a_{3}^{-} s^{3}+a_{4}^{+} s^{4}+a_{5}^{+} s^{5}+a_{6}^{-} s^{6}+\cdots, \\
& p^{+-}(s)=a_{0}^{+}+a_{1}^{-} s+a_{2}^{-} s^{2}+a_{3}^{+} s^{3}+a_{4}^{+} s^{4}+a_{5}^{-} s^{5}+a_{6}^{-} s^{6}+\cdots, \\
& p^{-+}(s)=a_{0}^{-}+a_{1}^{+} s+a_{2}^{+} s^{2}+a_{3}^{-} s^{3}+a_{4}^{-} s^{4}+a_{5}^{+} s^{5}+a_{6}^{+} s^{6}+\cdots, \\
& p^{--}(s)=a_{0}^{-}+a_{1}^{-} s+a_{2}^{+} s^{2}+a_{3}^{+} s^{3}+a_{4}^{-} s^{4}+a_{5}^{-} s^{5}+a_{6}^{+} s^{6}+\cdots,
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark: If a coefficient $a_{i}$ is fixed, we just set the lower and upper bound to be equal, i.e., $a_{i}^{-}=a_{i}^{+}$.
The importance of Kharitonov's theorem follows from its simplicity. Essentially, it reduces checking stability of infinitely many polynomials to checking stability of only four representative polynomials. For the latter, the Routh-Hurwitz criterion can be used.

## Controllability

Controllability is related to the question to what extend the state trajectories of a linear system can be influenced through the input.

Let the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Sigma: \quad \dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$
Definition 33 The state $x_{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is reachable at time $T>0$ if there exists $u:[0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ such that

$$
x(T ; 0, u)=x_{f}
$$

Definition 34 Reachable subspace $W_{T}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
W_{T} & =\left\{x_{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid x_{f} \text { is reachable at } T\right\} \\
& =\left\{\int_{0}^{T} e^{A(T-\tau)} B u(\tau) d \tau \mid u:[0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 35 The system $\Sigma$ is reachable at time $T>0$ if any $x_{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is reachable at time $T>0$, i.e, $W_{T}=\mathbb{R}^{n}$

Theorem 36 Let $v \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $T>0$. Then, the following are equivalent:

1. $v^{T} x=0$ for all $x \in W_{T}$ (i.e $v$ is orthogonal to $W_{T}$ )
2. $v^{T} e^{A t} B=0$ for all $0 \leq t \leq T$
3. $v^{T} A^{k} B=0$ for $k=0,1,2, \ldots$
4. $v^{T}\left[\begin{array}{lllll}B & A B & A^{2} B & \cdots & A^{n-1} B\end{array}\right]=0$

Corollary $37 W_{T}$ is independent of $T$ and $W_{T}=\operatorname{im}\left[\begin{array}{lllll}B & A B & A^{2} B & \cdots & A^{n-1} B\end{array}\right]$
Definition 38 The system $\Sigma$ is controllable at time $T>0$ if, for any $x_{0}, x_{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, there exists $u:[0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ such that

$$
x\left(T ; x_{0}, u\right)=x_{f}
$$

Theorem 39 The system $\Sigma$ is controllable at $T>0$ if and only if $\Sigma$ is reachable at $T>0$

Theorem 40 The following are equivalent

1. $\exists T>0$ such that $\Sigma$ is controllable at time $T$
2. $\Sigma$ is controllable at $T$ for all $T>0$
3. $\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{lllll}B & A B & A^{2} B & \cdots & A^{n-1} B\end{array}\right]=n$
4. $W=\mathbb{R}^{n}$

Theorem 41 The reachable subspace $W$ is the smallest $A$-invariant subspace containing im $B$

## Observability

Observability deals with the question to what extend can observer what happening in my system by looking only the output $y$, i.e it asks for the extend at which the state trajectories influence the output.

Definition 42 Two states $x_{0}, x_{0}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ are indistinguishable on $[0, T]$ if

$$
y\left(t ; x_{0}, 0\right)=y^{\prime}\left(t ; x_{0}^{\prime}, 0\right) \quad \text { for allt } \in[0, T]
$$

Remark: $y\left(t ; x_{0}, 0\right)=e^{A t} x_{0}$

## Definition 43 Unobservable subspace

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{T} & =\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid x \text { is indistinguishable from } 0 \text { on }[0, T]\right. \\
& =\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid C e^{A t} x=0 \text { for all } t \in[0, T]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 44 Let $T>0$. Then, the following are equivalent

1. $x \in N_{T}$
2. $C e^{A t} x=0$ for all $0 \leq t \leq T$
3. $C A^{k} x=0$ for all $k=0,1,2, \ldots$
4. $\left[\begin{array}{c}C \\ C A \\ C A^{2} \\ \vdots \\ C A^{n-1}\end{array}\right] x=0$

Corollary $45 N_{T}$ is independent of $T$ for $T>0$ and

$$
N_{T}=\operatorname{ker}\left[\begin{array}{c}
C \\
C A \\
C A^{2} \\
\vdots \\
C A^{n-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Remark: Let $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ then $\operatorname{ker}(M)=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid M x=0\right\}$
Definition 46 The system $\Sigma$ is observable on $[0, T]$ if $x_{0}, x_{0}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ are indistinguishable on $[0, T]$ only if $x_{0}=x_{0}^{\prime}$

Theorem 47 The unobservable subspace $N$ is the largest $A$-invariant subspace contained in ker $C$

Theorem 48 The following are equivalent

1. $\exists T>0$ such that $\Sigma$ is observable on $[0, T]$
2. $\Sigma$ is observable on $[0, T]$ for all $T>0$
3. $\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{c}C \\ C A \\ C A^{2} \\ \vdots \\ C A^{n-1}\end{array}\right]=n$
4. $N=\{0\}$

## Similar systems

Definition $49 \Sigma(A, B)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B})$ are called similar if there exists a nonsingular $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$
\bar{A}=T A T^{-1}, \quad \bar{B}=T B
$$

Theorem 50 Let $\Sigma(A, B)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B})$ be similar, then $\exists T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be non singular, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Sigma(A, B) \text { is controllable } & \Leftrightarrow \Sigma\left(T A T^{-1}, T B\right) \text { is contrallable } \\
\Sigma(A, C) \text { is observable } & \Leftrightarrow \Sigma\left(T A T^{-1}, C T^{-1}\right) \text { is observable }
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 51 A canonical form for uncontrollable system Assume $\Sigma(A, B)$ is not controllable and define $k=\operatorname{dim} W<n$. Then, there exits a nonsigular $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$
T A T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
0 & A_{22}
\end{array}\right] \quad T B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
B_{1} \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

with $A_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, B_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$ and $\Sigma\left(A_{11}, B_{1}\right)$ controllable

## Procedures:

1. Let $\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n}\right\}$ with $q_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ adapted to $W$, i.e $W=\operatorname{span}\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{k}\right\}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{n}=\operatorname{span}\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n}\right\}$.
2. Define $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}q_{1} & q_{2} & \cdots & q_{k} & q_{k+1} & \cdots & q_{n}\end{array}\right]$

Theorem 52 Canonical form for controllable system Let $\Sigma(A, B)$ with $m=1$ be controllable. Then, there exists a nonsingular matrix $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$
T A T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ddots & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & & & \ddots & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & \cdots & -a_{n-2} & -a_{n-1}
\end{array}\right] \quad T B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ are the coefficients of the monic characteristic polynomial of $A$, i.e.,

$$
\Delta_{A}(s)=s^{n}+a_{n-1} s^{n-1}+a_{n-2} s^{n-2}+\cdots+a_{1} s+a_{0}
$$

## Procedures:

1. Verify controllability
2. Compute $\Delta_{A}(s)$
3. Compute $T$

$$
T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
q_{1} & q_{2} & \cdots & q_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{n} & =B \\
q_{n-1} & =A B+a_{n-1} B \\
q_{n-2} & =A^{2} B+a_{n-1} A B+a_{n-2} B \\
& \vdots \\
q_{1} & =A^{n-1} B+a_{n-1} A^{n-2} B+\cdots+a_{2} A B+a_{1} B
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 53 Let $\Sigma(A, B)$ be such that

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
0 & A_{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
B_{1} \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $A_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, B_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ and $\Sigma\left(A_{11}, B_{1}\right)$ is controllable. Then, $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ is $(A, B)$ controllable if and only if $\lambda \notin \sigma\left(A_{22}\right)$

Theorem 54 The system $\Sigma(A, B)$

$$
\Sigma(A, B):\{\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t)
$$

is controllable if and only if the system $\Sigma\left(A^{T}, B^{T}\right)$

$$
\Sigma\left(A^{T}, B^{T}\right):\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}(t)=A^{T} x(t) \\
y(t)=B^{T} x(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

is observable.

Theorem $55 \operatorname{Let} \Sigma(A, C)$ be unobservable and define $k=n-\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{N}<n$. Then, there exists a nonsingular matrix $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$
T A T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11} & 0  \tag{7}\\
A_{21} & A_{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad C T^{-1}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
C_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $A_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, C_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times k}$, and the matrix pair $\left(A_{11}, C_{1}\right)$ is observable.

## Controllable/observable eigenvalues

Definition 56 An eigenvalue $\lambda$ of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called

1. $(A, B)-$ controllable if

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A-\lambda I & B]=n \tag{8}
\end{array}\right.
$$

2. $(A, C)$ - observable if

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{c}
A-\lambda I \\
C
\end{array}\right]=n
$$

Remark: The rank conditions above allow for various alternative formulations. For example, instead of (8) we can write that for every vector $v$ the implication

$$
v^{T} A=\lambda v^{T}, \quad v^{T} B=0 \Rightarrow v=0
$$

Thus, there does not exist a left eigenvector of $A$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda$ which is orthogonal to $\operatorname{im}(B)$. Similarly, $(A, C)$ is unobservable if and only if $v \neq 0$ with

$$
A v=\lambda v, \quad C v=0
$$

i.e, $v$ is a eigenvector which is in the null space (ker) of $C$.

Theorem 57 Hautus Test

1. $\Sigma(A, B)$ is controllable if and only if

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A-\lambda I & B]=n \quad \text { for all } \lambda \in \sigma(A)
\end{array}\right.
$$

2. $\Sigma(A, C)$ is observable if and only if

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{c}
A-\lambda I \\
C
\end{array}\right]=n \quad \text { for all } \lambda \in \sigma(A)
$$

## Stabilization by static feedback

Let $\Sigma(A, B): \dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B u(t)$ where $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$
Definition 58 State feedback controller

$$
u(t)=F x(t)
$$

## Closed-loop dynamics

$$
\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)+B F x(t)=(A+B F) x(t)
$$

Definition 59 Stabilization problem Given $\Sigma(A, B)$, find $F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ s.t

$$
\sigma(A+B F) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}=\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid \Re(z)<0\}
$$

Theorem 60 Pole placement The following are equivalent

1. $\Sigma(A, B)$ is controllable
2. For every monic polynomial $p$ of degree $n$, there exists $F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ s.t

$$
\Delta_{A+B F}(s)=p(s)
$$

Remark: hence, we can choose the eigenvalues of $A+B F$ anyway we like.
Theorem 61 Given $\Sigma(A, B)$, there exist $F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that $\sigma(A+B F) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$if and only if every $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ s.t $\lambda \notin \mathbb{C}_{-}$is $(A, B)$ controllable

Definition 62 The system $\Sigma(A, B)$ is called stabilizable if there exists a feedback $F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that $\sigma(A+B F) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$.

Corollary 63 The system $\Sigma(A, B)$ is stabilizable if and only if every unstable eigenvalue of $A$ is $(A, B)$-controllable, i.e., if and only if

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
A-\lambda I & B
\end{array}\right]=n \quad \text { for all } \lambda \in \sigma(A) \quad \text { s.t } \Re(\lambda) \geq 0
$$

Theorem 64 Consider the system $\Sigma(A, B)$ and assume that, for every initial condition $x_{0} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, there exists an input function $u:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ such that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} x\left(t ; x_{0}, u\right)=0
$$

Then, $\Sigma(A, B)$ is stabilizable.

## Process to find the matrix $F$

1. First put the system $\Sigma$ in canonical form
2. compute $\bar{F}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}f_{0} & f_{1} & \cdots & f_{n-1}\end{array}\right]$ where $f_{i}=a_{i}-p_{i}$ for $i \in 0, \ldots, n-1$, with $a_{i}$ and $p_{i}$ the coefficient of the $\delta(A)$ and $\delta(A+B F)$ respectively. $\left(a_{0}, p_{0}\right.$ are the coefficient of $s^{0}$ of both polynomial).
3. compute $F=\bar{F} T$

## State Observers

Let the following system

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

with $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$.
The goal of the observers $\Omega$ is to estimate the state of the real system $\Sigma$.

$$
\Omega:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{w}(t)=P w(t)+Q u(t)+R y(t) \\
\xi(t)=S w(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $w(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{w}}$ and $\xi(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ an estimate of $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

## Definition 65 Estimation error

$$
e(t)=\xi(t)-x(t)
$$

## Dynamics:

$$
\dot{e}(t)=(S P+S R C S-A S) w(t)+(A-S R C) e(t)+(S Q-B) u(t)
$$

Definition $66 \Omega$ is called a state observer if, for any $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, w_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{w}}$ such that $e(0)=$ $S w_{0}-x_{0}=0$ (i.e initially we have a perfect estimate), for any input function $u(\cdot)$,

$$
e(t)=0, \quad \forall t \geq 0
$$

Definition 67 A state observer $\Omega$ is called stable if, for any $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, $w_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and any input function $u(\cdot)$,

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t)=0
$$

Theorem 68 The general form of a state observer for $\Sigma$ is

$$
\dot{\xi}(t)=(A-S R C) \xi(t)+B u(t)+S R y(t)
$$

with $\xi(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, S R=G \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$. Then, the estimation error satisfies

$$
\dot{e}(t)=(A-G C) e(t)
$$

such that this state observer is stable if and only if $\sigma(A-G C) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$
Interpretation: output injection

$$
\dot{\xi}(t)=A \xi(t)+B u(t)+G(y(t)-C \xi(t))
$$

therefore, the system $\Omega$ is a copy of the original system $\Sigma$, where $\xi$ and $C \xi$ are the estimations for the state $x(\cdot)$ and output $y(\cdot)$ respectively.

Definition $69 \Sigma$ is detectable if there exists $G \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ such that $\sigma(A-G C) \subset \mathbb{C}$ -
Lemma 70 The matrix pair $(A, C)$ is detectable if and only if the matrix pair $\left(A^{T}, C^{T}\right)$ is stabilizable

## Recall:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(A, B) \text { is stabilizable } & \Leftrightarrow \exists F \text { s.t. } \sigma(A+B F) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-} \\
(A, C) \text { is detectable } & \Leftrightarrow \exists G \text { s.t. } \sigma(A-G C) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 71 Hautus test for detectability $\Sigma$ is detectable if and only if every unstable eigenvalue of $A$ is $(A, C)$ observable, i.e.,

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left[\begin{array}{c}
A-\lambda I \\
C
\end{array}\right]=n \quad \forall \lambda \in \sigma(A) \quad \text { s.t } \Re(\lambda) \geq 0
$$

Corollary 72 Consider $\Sigma$. The following are equivalent

1. There exists a stable state observer for $\Sigma$
2. $\Sigma$ is detectable
3. every eigenvalue $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$ such that $\Re(\lambda) \geq 0$ is $(A, C)$ observable
stabilization by dynamic output feedback

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

with $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$

Definition 73 Dynamic output feedback controller

$$
\Gamma:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{w}(t)=K w(t)+L y(t) \\
u(t)=M w(t)+N y(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $w(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{w}}$
Definition 74 Problem formulation Given $\Sigma(A, B, C)$. Find $\Gamma$ characterized by ( $K, L, M, N$ such that

$$
A_{c l}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A+B N C & B M \\
L C & K
\end{array}\right]
$$

satisfies $\sigma\left(A_{c l}\right) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-}$
Dynamic output feedback controller $(w=\xi)$

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

Lemma 75 Let

1. $\Omega$ be a stable observes for $\Sigma$
2. F solve the stabilization problem for static state feedback

Then $\Gamma$ solves the stabilization problem by dynamic output feedback
Theorem 76 Consider $\Sigma(A, B, C)$. The following are equivalent:

1. $(A, B)$ are stabilizable and $(A, C)$ is detectable
2. $\exists \Gamma$ that solves the stabilization problem by dynamic output feedback

$$
\sigma\left(A_{c l}\right) \subset \mathbb{C}_{-} \quad \text { with } A_{c l}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A+B N C & B M \\
L C & K
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Input Output properties

Output Trajectory ( $t_{0}=0$ )

$$
y\left(t ; x_{0}, u\right)=C e^{A t} x_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} C e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d \tau+D u(t)
$$

Definition 77 Two system $\Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D})$ are similar if

$$
\bar{A}=T A T^{-1}, \quad \bar{B}=T B, \quad \bar{C}=C T^{-1}, \quad \bar{D}=D
$$

for some nonsingular $T$.
Theorem 78 Let $\Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D})$ be similar. Then,

$$
y(t ; 0, u)=\bar{y}(t ; 0, u)
$$

for any input function $u: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$.

## Input response

Definition $79 u_{\epsilon}(t)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2 \epsilon}, & -\epsilon \leq t \leq \epsilon \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$
Lemma 80 Consider the system $\Sigma(A, B, C)$ and define

$$
y_{\epsilon}(t)=\int_{-\epsilon}^{t} C e^{A(t-\tau)} B u_{\epsilon}(\tau) d \tau
$$

then

$$
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^{+}} y_{\epsilon}(t)= \begin{cases}C e^{A t} B, & t>0 \\ 0, & t<0\end{cases}
$$

Definition 81 Delta Dirac function $A$ function $\delta: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with defining properties

1. $\delta(t)=0$ for all $t \neq 0$
2. for any continuous function $\phi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t-\tau) \delta(\tau) d \tau=\phi(t)
$$

more explicitly

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t-\tau) \delta(\tau) d \tau=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^{+}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t-\tau) u_{\epsilon}(\tau) d \tau=
$$

take the input

$$
u(t)=e_{i} \delta(t) \quad \text { with } e_{i}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\cdots \\
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
\cdots \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

where 1 is at position $i$. Then,

$$
y\left(t ; 0, e_{i} \delta\right)=\int_{0}^{t} C e^{A(t-\tau)} B e_{i} \delta(\tau) d \tau+D e_{i} \delta(t)=\left(C e^{A t} B+D \delta(t)\right) e_{i}
$$

Definition 82 The impulse response matrix for $\Sigma$ is $H: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ defined as

$$
H(t)= \begin{cases}C e^{A t} B+D \delta(t), & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t<0\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 83 Consider $\Sigma$ with impulse response matrix $H$. Then,

$$
y(t ; 0, u)=\int_{0}^{t} H(t-\tau) u(\tau) d \tau
$$

Theorem 84 Let the systems $\Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D})$ be similar and denote their impulse response matrices by $H$ and $\bar{H}$, respectively. Then,

$$
H(t)=\bar{H}(t)
$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$

Theorem 85 Consider the system $\Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ and its impulse response matrix. Then, the following statements hold:

1. assume that the matrices $A, B$, and $C$ are structured as

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11} & A_{12} \\
0 & A_{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
B_{1} \\
0
\end{array}\right], \quad C=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
C_{1} & C_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

then the impulse response matrix satisfies

$$
H(t)= \begin{cases}C_{1} e^{A_{11} t} B_{1}+D \delta(t), & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t<0\end{cases}
$$

2. assume that the matrices $A, B$, and $C$ are structured as

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{11} & 0 \\
A_{21} & A_{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{l}
B_{1} \\
B_{2}
\end{array}\right], \quad C=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
C_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

then the impulse response matrix satisfies

$$
H(t)= \begin{cases}C_{1} e^{A_{11} t} B_{1}+D \delta(t), & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t<0\end{cases}
$$

Remark: essentially states that the impulse response of a system is only dependent on its controllable subsystem.

## Laplace transform

Definition 86 A function $f: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is exponentially bounded if

$$
|f(t)| \leq M e^{\alpha t} \quad \text { for all } t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}
$$

Definition 87 For $f$ exponentially bounded, its Laplace transform

$$
\mathcal{L}(f)(s)=\int_{0}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-s t} d t
$$

for $s \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\Re(s)>\alpha$

## Theorem 88 Propreties

1. $\mathcal{L}\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{L}(f)+L\left(f^{\prime}\right), \mathcal{L}(\alpha f)=\alpha \mathcal{L}(f), \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$
2. If $f$ is diferentiable and $\dot{f}$ is exponentially bounded,

$$
\mathcal{L}(\dot{f})=s \mathcal{L}(f)-f(0)
$$

3. if $u, h$ are exponentially bounded, then

$$
y(t)=\int_{0}^{t} h(t-\tau) u(\tau) d \tau
$$

is exponentially bounded and

$$
\mathcal{L}(y)=\mathcal{L}(h) \mathcal{L}(u)
$$

## Transfer function matrix

Denote $\hat{x}(s)=\mathcal{L}(x)(s), \hat{u}(s)=\mathcal{L}(u)(s), \hat{y}(s)=\mathcal{L}(y)(s)$

Definition 89 The transfer function matrix of $\Sigma$ is the function

$$
T(s)=C(s I-A)^{-1} B+D
$$

Theorem 90 Consider the system $\Sigma$ with $H$ and $T$. Then,

$$
T(s)=\mathcal{L}(H)(s)
$$

for all $s \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\Re(s)>\Lambda(A)$ where $\Lambda(A)=\max \{\Re(\lambda) \mid \lambda \in \sigma(A)\}$

Theorem 91 Let $\Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ and $\Sigma(\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}, \bar{D})$ be similar. Then,

$$
T(s)=\bar{T}(s)
$$

## Theorem 92 Cramer's rule

$$
(s I-A)^{-1}=\frac{1}{\Delta_{A}(s)} \operatorname{adj}(s I-A)
$$

## SISO systems

SISO means Single Input Single Output

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

where $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}$.
Theorem 93 Consider $\Sigma_{\text {siso }}$ with

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \ddots & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & & & \ddots & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & -a_{2} & \cdots & -a_{n-2} & -a_{n-1}
\end{array}\right] \quad B=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

and

$$
C=\left[\begin{array}{llllll}
c_{0} & c_{1} & c_{2} & \cdots & c_{n-2} & c_{n-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $D=0$. Then,

$$
T(s)=\frac{c_{n-1} s^{n-1}+c_{n-2} s^{n-2}+\cdots+c_{1} s+c_{0}}{s^{n}+a_{n-1} s^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{1} s+a_{0}}
$$

Theorem 94 Consider $\Sigma_{\text {siso }}$ and let $(A, B)$ be controllable. Then,

$$
p(s)=C a d j(s I-A) B, q(s)=\Delta_{A}(s)
$$

are coprime (i.e they do not have common roots) if and only if $(A, C)$ is observable.

## Stability

Definition $95 \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is a pole of $T$ if it is a root of $q^{\prime}$, where $q^{\prime}, p^{\prime}$ are the coprime polynomials of $T$. It is a pole of

$$
T(s)=\frac{1}{q(s)} P(s)
$$

with $P$ a matrix of polynomials, if it is a pole of at least one of its elements.
Theorem 96 1. If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is a pole of $T$, then $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$.
2. if $\lambda \in \sigma(A),(A, B)$ is controllable, $(A, C)$ is observable, then $\lambda$ is a pole of $T$.

Definition $97 \Sigma$ is externally stable if $\exists \gamma>0$ s.t for any bounded $u: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$,

$$
\sup _{t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}}\|y(t ; 0, u)\| \leq \gamma \sup _{t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}}\|u(t)\|
$$

Remark: Due to linearity

$$
\|u(t)\| \leq 1 \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}_{+} \Rightarrow\|y(t ; 0, u)\| \leq \gamma \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}
$$

Lemma $98 \Sigma(A, B, C, D)$ is externally stable if and only if $\Sigma(A, B, C, 0)$ is externally stable
Theorem 99 The following are equivalent:

1. $\Sigma$ is externally stable
2. $\int_{0}^{\infty}\left\|C e^{A t} B\right\| d t<\infty$
3. $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} C e^{A t} B=0$
4. all poles of $T$ are in $\mathbb{C}_{-}$

Definition $100 \Sigma$ is internally stable if $\dot{x}(t)=A x(t)$ is asymptotically stable, i.e

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{A t}=0
$$

Theorem 101 1. If $\Sigma$ is internally stable, then $\Sigma$ is externally stable
2. If $\Sigma$ is external stable, $(A, B)$ controllable, $(A, C)$ observable, then $\Sigma$ is internally stable

