

Ordinary Differential Equations and Dynamical Systems

Lecture Notes for Math 210 C, Spring 2014
Bo Li, Math, UCSD. bli@math.ucsd.edu

- Plan.
- Part 1. Linear Systems
 - Part 2. Nonlinear Systems: local theory
 - Part 3. Nonlinear Systems: global theory
 - Part 4. Bifurcation
 - Part 5. Discrete Dynamical Systems

Part I. Linear Systems

- Section 1. Plane Systems. Phase Portraits
- Section 2. General Linear Systems.
- Appendix. Matrix Exponentials

Section 1. Plane Systems

Some general remarks — introduction

We study $\begin{cases} \frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{dx_n}{dt} = f_n(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{cases}$ or a system of ODE

with initial conditions

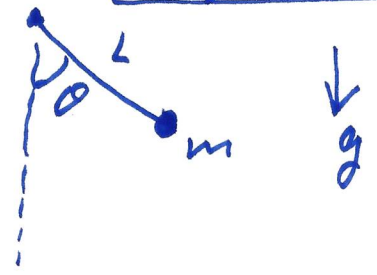
$$x_1(0) = x_{10}, \dots, x_n(0) = x_{n0}.$$

Here $x_1 = x_1(t), x_2 = x_2(t), \dots, x_n = x_n(t)$ are the unknown functions.

We show how to convert a single, high-order eq. into a system of 1st order equations.

Example The motion of a pendulum is

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + \frac{g}{L} \sin\theta = 0$$



let $x_1 = \theta$
 $x_2 = \dot{x}_1$ ($\dot{} = \frac{d}{dt}$)
 $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{g}{L} \sin x_1 \end{cases}$

Example If $y = y(t)$ satisfies

$$y^{(n)} = f(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)})$$

then we can set

$$x_1 = y, x_2 = x_1' = y', x_3 = x_2' = y'', \dots, x_n = x_{n-1}' = y^{(n-1)}$$

to get $\begin{cases} x_1' = x_2 \\ x_2' = x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1}' = x_n \\ x_n' = f(t, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) \end{cases}$

Linear Systems (non homogeneous if some $b_j \neq 0$)

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = a_{11}(t)x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}(t)x_n + b_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2 = a_{21}(t)x_1 + \dots + a_{2n}(t)x_n + b_2(t) \\ \vdots \\ \dot{x}_n = a_{n1}(t)x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}(t)x_n + b_n(t) \end{cases}$$

Here all $a_{ij}(t), b_j(t)$ are known functions.

Notation

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad A = [a_{ij}(t)] \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\dot{x} = Ax + b.$$

Strategy: — $b = 0$, $A = \text{constant matrix}$, $n = 2$.
 — generalization.

Section 1 Plane system: $n = 2$.

Linear, homogeneous plane system with constant coefficients

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad b = 0.$$

$$\dot{x} = Ax.$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{cases}$$

Solution Method. $\dot{x}_1 = a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2$
 from x_2 equation $= a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}(a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2)$

Solve for x_2 and plug it into $\dot{x}_1 = \dots$ to get
 $\dot{x}_1 + p x_1 + \xi x_1 = 0$

Try $x_1 = e^{\lambda t}$ $\lambda^2 + p\lambda + \xi = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1, \lambda_2.$

(1) λ_1, λ_2 : real, distinct $e^{\lambda_1 t}, e^{\lambda_2 t}$

(2) $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$: real. $e^{\lambda t}, t e^{\lambda t}$

(3) $\lambda_{1,2} = \alpha \pm \beta i$ $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. $e^{\alpha t} \cos \beta t, e^{\alpha t} \sin \beta t$

Then, substitute back to $x_2 = \dots$ and solve for x_1 .
[nonhomogeneous].

Diagonalization Method

Example $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_1 - 3x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = 2x_2 \end{cases}$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ eigenvalues and eigenvectors
 $\lambda_1 = -1, \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\lambda_2 = 2, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Let $P = [\vec{v}_1 \ \vec{v}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

check: $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$: diagonal matrix!

Let $y = P^{-1}x$ $x = Py$

$\dot{y} = P^{-1}\dot{x} = P^{-1}A \cdot Py = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} y$

$\begin{cases} \dot{y}_1 = -y_1 \\ \dot{y}_2 = 2y_2 \end{cases}$ Decoupled!

$y_1(t) = c_1 e^{-t}$ $y_2(t) = c_2 e^{2t}$

$x(t) = Py = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{-t} \\ c_2 e^{2t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{-t} - c_2 e^{2t} \\ c_2 e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$

i.e., $\boxed{\begin{matrix} x_1 = c_1 e^{-t} - c_2 e^{2t} \\ x_2 = c_2 e^{2t} \end{matrix}}$

Alternatively, $x_2 = c_2 e^{2t}$
Solve $\dot{x}_1 = -x_1 - 3c_2 e^{2t}$

Nonhomogeneous, 1st-order linear.

Remark. Not every matrix can be diagonalized. But, one can, for 2×2 systems particularly, use the Jordan form

$$2 \times 2: \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Method of Matrix Exponential

$$\dot{x} = Ax \implies x(t) = e^{tA} x(0)$$

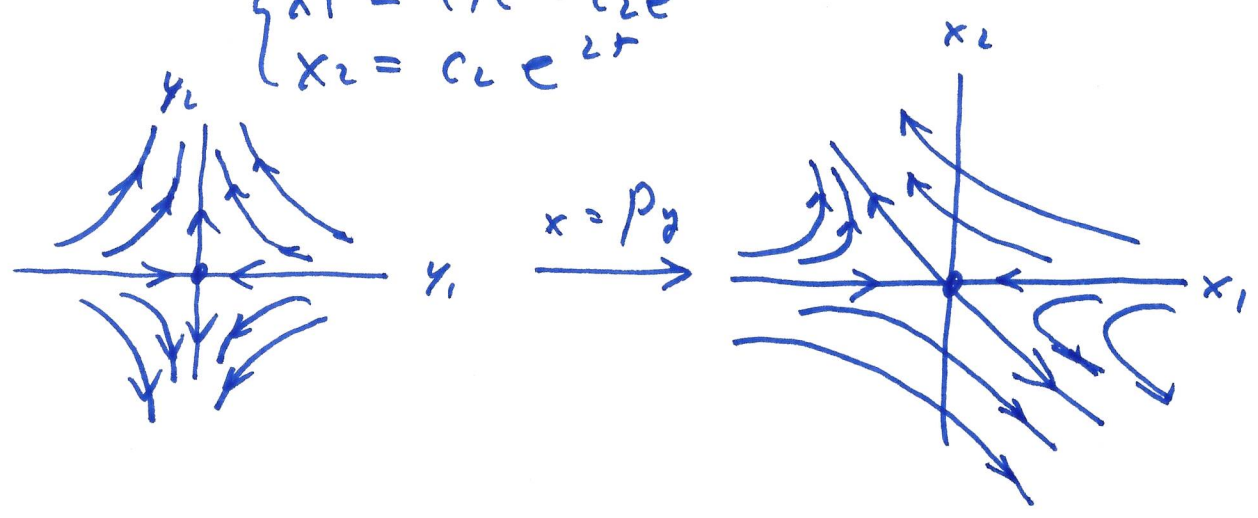
But often e^{tA} is hard to compute. One way is to diagonalize A .

Here we focus on the solution properties: view solution $x = x(t)$ as a trajectory in \mathbb{R}^n .

Example (continued) $x' = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} x$

$$\dot{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} y \quad \begin{cases} y_1 = c_1 e^{-t} = y_1(0) e^{-t} \\ y_2 = c_2 e^{2t} = y_2(0) e^{2t} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = c_1 e^{-t} - c_2 e^{2t} \\ x_2 = c_2 e^{2t} \end{cases}$$



- ① $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$: critical point. i.e., $x_1(t) \equiv 0$
 $x_2(t) \equiv 0$
 is an equilibrium solution.
- ② No trajectories crossing each other: solution is unique. One trajectory passes through one point.
- ③ Stability of the system around the critical point: going in or leaving away?

Now, consider $x' = Ax$ $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$.

Let λ_1, λ_2 be the eigenvalues of A :

$$\lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc) = 0$$

$$a+d = \text{tr}(A), \quad ad-bc = \det A.$$

The λ -eq. comes from $\det[\lambda I - A] = 0$.

Case 1 $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$: real. Case 2 $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$: real.

Case 3 λ_1, λ_2 : complex conjugate.

~~Case 1 $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$~~

After changing coordinates, we have only 3 cases

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ -\beta & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

($\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$) $\beta \neq 0$.

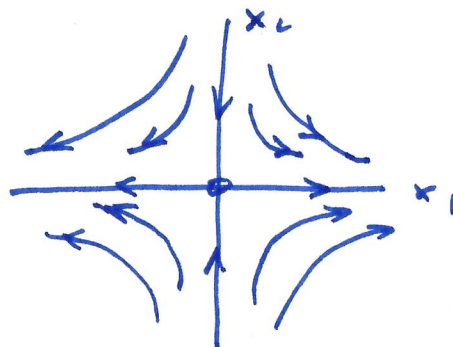
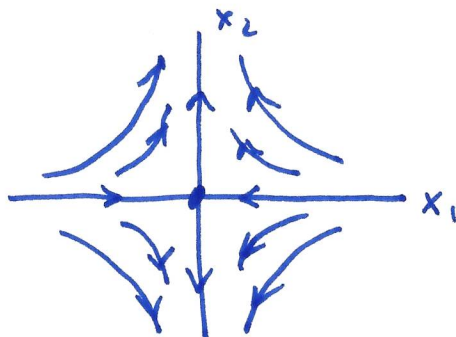
Case 1

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Case 1.1

$\lambda < 0 < \mu$

$\text{or } \lambda > 0 > \mu$



$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= c_1 e^{\lambda t} \\ x_2 &= c_2 e^{\mu t} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= c_1 e^{\lambda t} \\ x_2 &= c_2 e^{\mu t} \end{aligned}$$

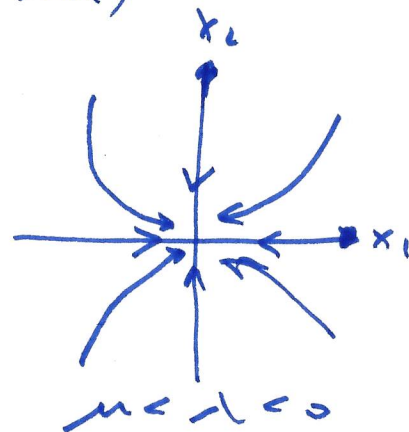
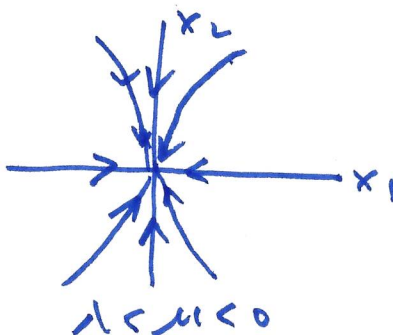
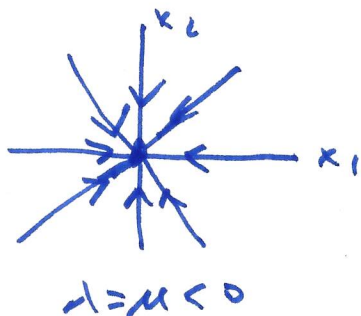
Call $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ a saddle node (or saddle point).

Case 1.2

$\lambda \leq \mu < 0$

$\text{or } 0 > \lambda \geq \mu$

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a stable node (sink)

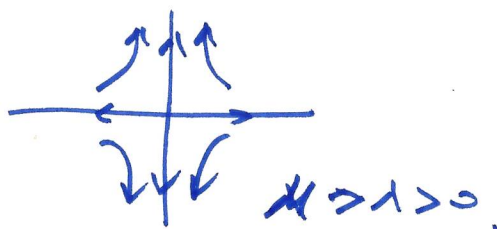
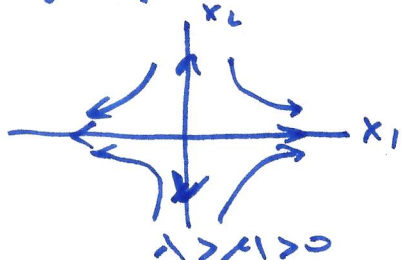


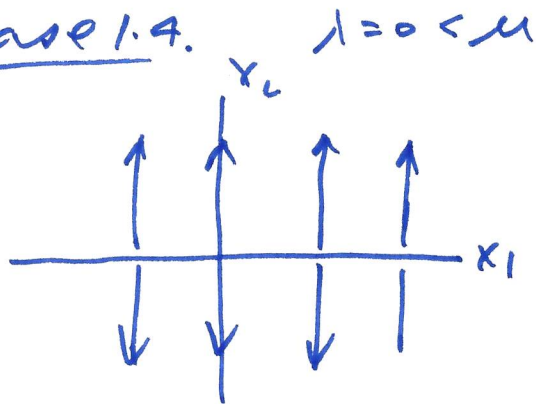
Case 1.3

$\lambda > \mu > 0$

$\text{or } \mu > \lambda > 0$

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is an unstable node (source)

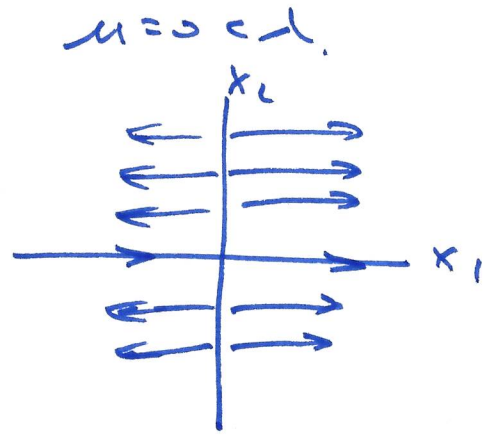


Case 1.4.

$$x_1 = x_1(0) \quad \forall t$$

$$x_2 = x_2(0) e^{\mu t}$$

$\lambda = 0 < \mu$



$\mu = 0 < \lambda$

Case 2 $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$

Case 2.1 $\lambda < 0$

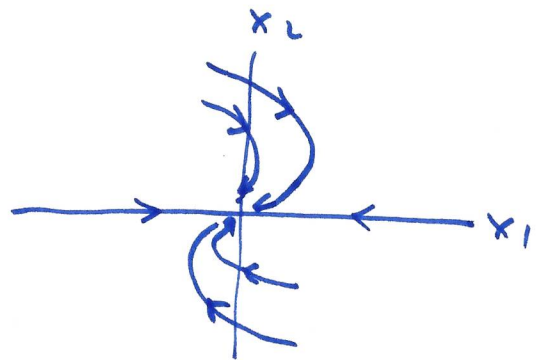
$$\dot{x}_1 = \lambda x_1 + x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = \lambda \Rightarrow x_2 = x_2(0) e^{\lambda t}$$

$$\dot{x}_1 - \lambda x_1 = x_2(0) e^{\lambda t}$$

$$(e^{-\lambda t} x_1)' = x_2(0)$$

$$e^{-\lambda t} x_1 = x_2(0)t + c_1, \quad x_1 = (x_2(0)t + c_1) e^{-\lambda t}$$



$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a stable node.

Case 2.2

$\lambda = 0$

$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = c_2 t + c_1$$

$$x_2 = c_2$$

unstable

Case 2.3

$\lambda > 0$: unstable

Case 3 $B = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ -\beta & \alpha \end{bmatrix}$. $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, \beta \neq 0$.

$x_1(t) = c_1 e^{\alpha t} \cos \beta t + c_2 e^{\alpha t} \sin \beta t$

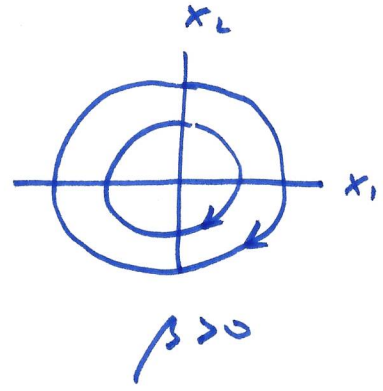
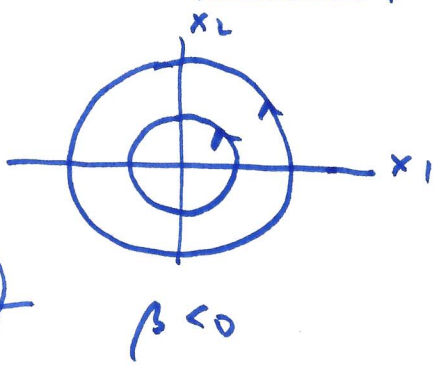
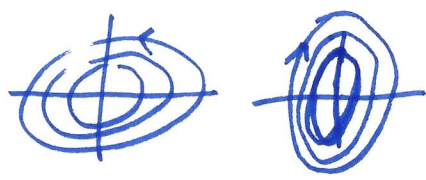
$x_2(t) = c_1 e^{\alpha t} (-\sin \beta t) + c_2 e^{\alpha t} \cos \beta t$

$x = c_1 e^{\alpha t} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta t \\ -\sin \beta t \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{\alpha t} \begin{bmatrix} \sin \beta t \\ \cos \beta t \end{bmatrix}$

Case 3.1 $\alpha = 0$, $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta t \\ -\sin \beta t \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} \sin \beta t \\ \cos \beta t \end{bmatrix}$

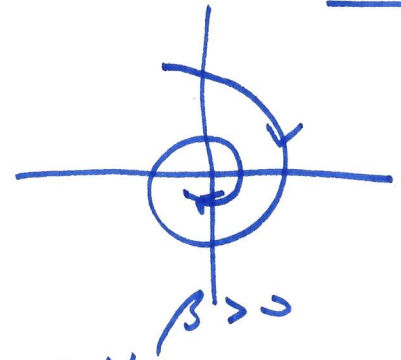
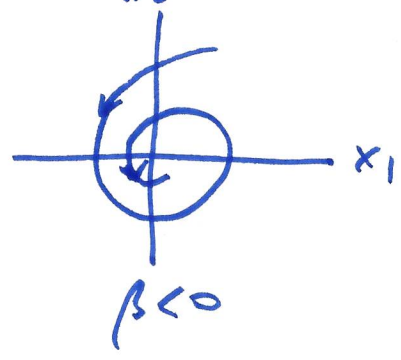
$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a center.

General



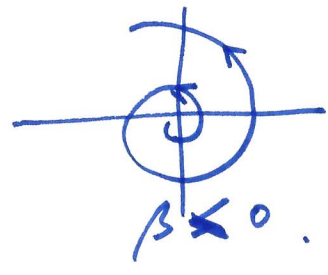
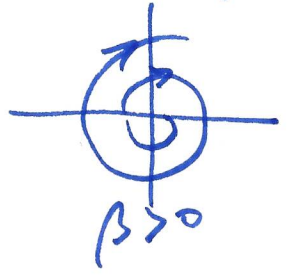
Case 3.2 $\alpha < 0, \beta \neq 0$.

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a stable focus or stable spirals.



Case 3.3 $\alpha > 0, \beta \neq 0$.

unstable

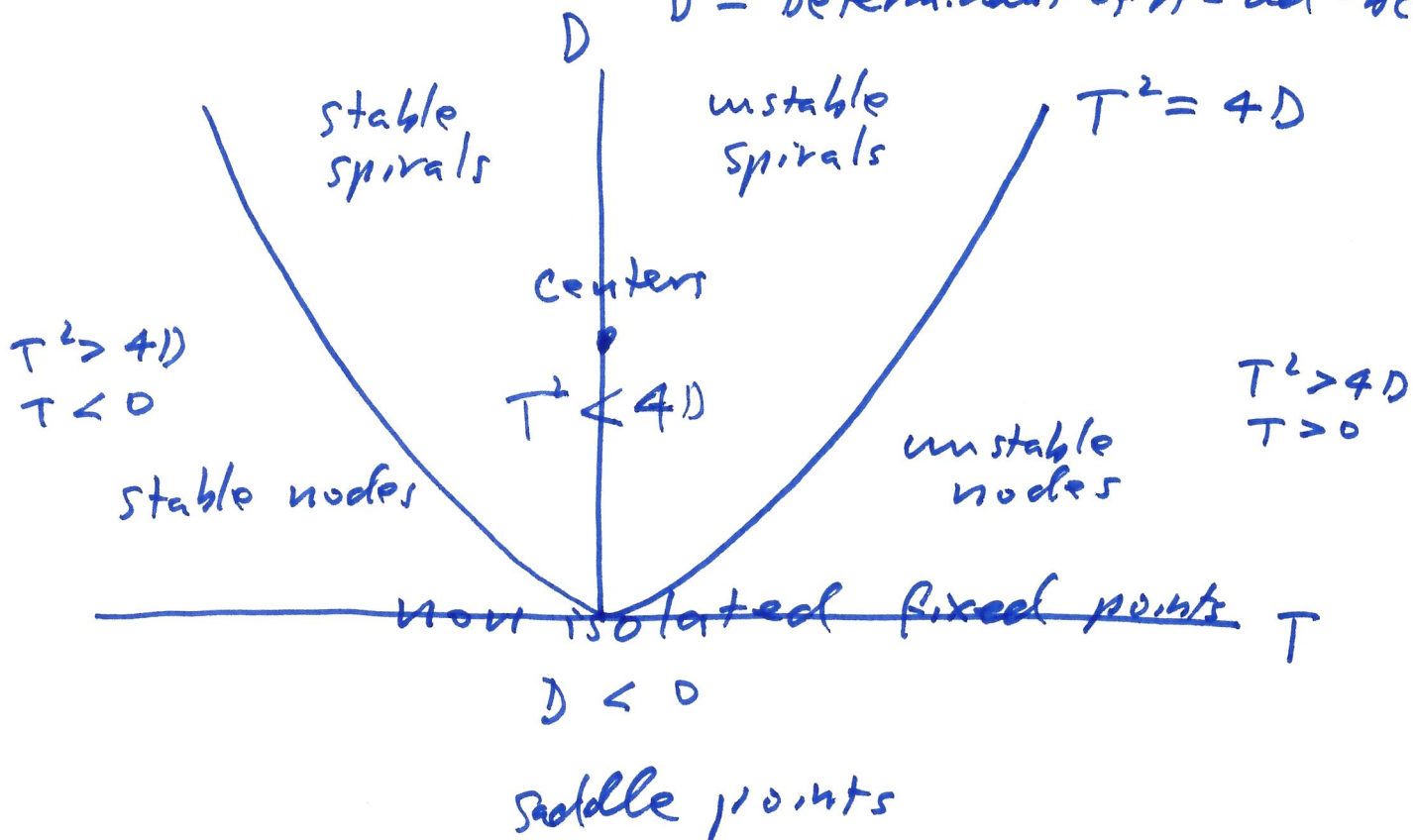


Summary: The trace-determinant plane

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$T = \text{Trace of } A = a + d$

$D = \text{Determinant of } A = ad - bc$



Analysis

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \det(\lambda I - A) = 0, \det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - a & -b \\ -c & \lambda - d \end{bmatrix} = 0$

$(\lambda - a)(\lambda - d) - bc = 0, \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda - \frac{bc}{+ad} = 0$

$\lambda^2 - T\lambda + D = 0$

$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2} (T \pm \sqrt{T^2 - 4D})$

$T^2 - 4D > 0$: real, distinct

$T^2 - 4D = 0$: real, repeated

$T^2 - 4D < 0$: complex, (non zero imaginary)

- $T < 0$: spiral sink
- $T > 0$: spiral source
- $T = 0$: center

Section 1.2 General Linearized Systems

11

$$\dot{x} = Ax \quad A: n \times n \text{ constant matrix}$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_n(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution $x = \boxed{x_0} e^{At} x(0)$

$$e^{At} = e^{tA} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tA)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k A^k}{k!}$$

Fundamental Theorem for Linear Systems

(with constant coefficients) The initial-value

problem $\begin{cases} \dot{x} = Ax \\ x(0) = x_0 \end{cases}$ has a unique solution $x(t) = \boxed{x_0} e^{At} x_0$.

Proof If $x(t) = e^{At} x_0$ then $x(0) = e^0 x_0 = I x_0 = x_0$.

and $\dot{x} = A e^{At} x_0 = Ax$.

If $y(t)$ is also a solution, then $z(t) = e^{-At} y(t)$ satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} z'(t) &= -A e^{-At} y(t) + e^{-At} y' \\ &= -A e^{-At} y(t) + e^{-At} A y(t) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since $A e^{-At} = e^{-At} A$.

$$z(t) \equiv z(0) = e^0 y(0) = I y(0) = x_0$$

So, $y(t) = (e^{-At})^{-1} z(t) = e^{At} z(0) = e^{At} x_0 = z(t) \quad \forall t. \quad \underline{\text{Q.E.D.}}$

Next, we study solutions as trajectories, study how stable the origin (as a fixed pt. - critical point) is. High-dim problems are difficult. But, we can study some examples first.

If A is diagonalizable, then the solution can be obtained.

e.g., $A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$, $x' = Ax$

$\Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \\ \vdots \\ c_n e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$

If all $\lambda_j < 0$ then 0 is a stable node (a sink)

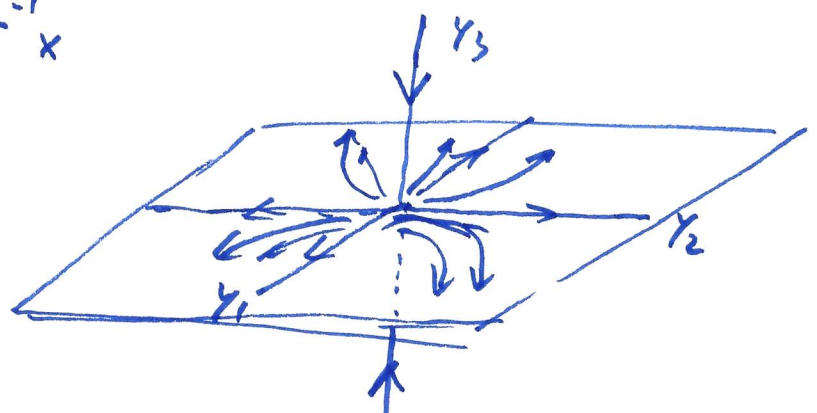
If all $\lambda_j > 0$ then 0 is an unstable node (a source)

If some $\lambda_j > 0$ others < 0 , then a saddle

Example $x' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} x$ $\begin{matrix} \nearrow \\ \nearrow \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 \end{bmatrix}$

$T^{-1}AT = D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ $T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$y = T^{-1}x$



$\text{span}\{\vec{v}_3\}$: stable
 $\text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$: unstable.

if A is diagonalizable,

In general, $\dot{y} = Dy = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} y$

$T = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_n]$ $T^{-1}AT = D$.
linearly indep.

$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \\ \vdots \\ c_n e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$

$x = Ty = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \\ \vdots \\ c_n e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$
 $= \sum_{j=1}^n c_j e^{\lambda_j t} \vec{v}_j$

If, for instance, $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k > 0, \lambda_{k+1} < 0, \dots, \lambda_n < 0$ then $\forall x_0 \in \text{span}\{\vec{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ then

$x_0 = \sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j \vec{v}_j$ for some $c_j, j=k+1, \dots, n$.

then $x(t) = \sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j e^{\lambda_j t} \vec{v}_j$

Solves (uniquely): $\begin{cases} x' = Ax \\ x(0) = x_0 \in \text{span}\{\vec{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n\} \end{cases}$

Since $\lambda_j < 0 (j=k+1, \dots, n)$, $x(t) \rightarrow 0$ exponentially.

Similarly, $x_0 \in \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ then

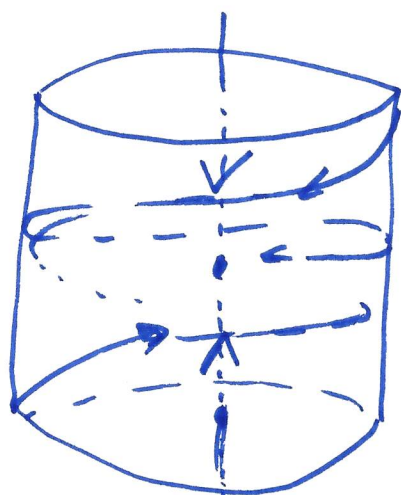
$x(t) = \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{c}_j e^{\lambda_j t} \vec{v}_j$ ($x(0) = x_0 = \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{c}_j \vec{v}_j$)

Since each $\lambda_j > 0 (j=1, \dots, k)$ then

$x(t) \rightarrow \infty$ (component wise) ($e^{\lambda_j t}$ dominant) (with $\lambda_j = \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} \lambda_i$)

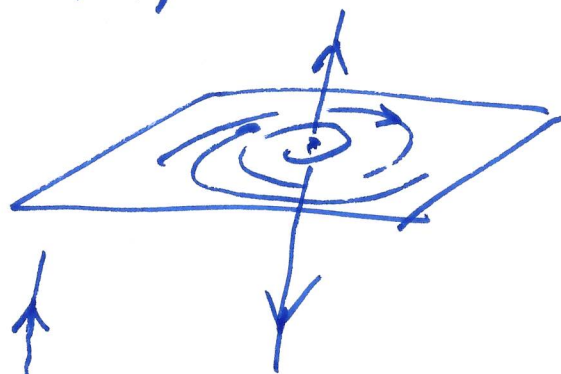
Example

$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x$$



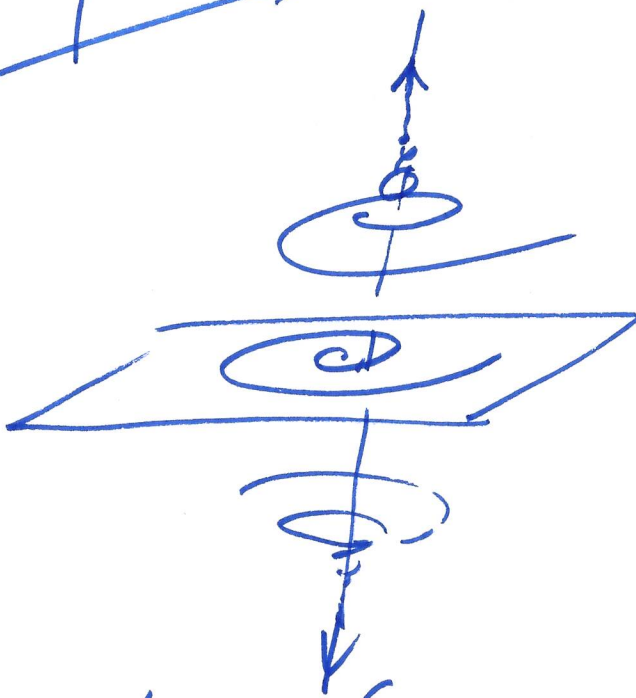
$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = r^2$$

a spiral center



Examples

spiral, saddle



Now, complex eigen values only, with real parts = 0

— harmonic oscillators

Example

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\omega_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -\omega_2^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} x_j' = y_j \\ y_j' = -\omega_j^2 x_j \end{cases} \quad j=1, 2$$

$$T^{-1}AT = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega_1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\omega_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \omega_2 \\ 0 & 0 & -\omega_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ y_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \cos \omega_1 t + b_1 \sin \omega_1 t \\ -a_1 \omega_1 \sin \omega_1 t + b_1 \omega_1 \cos \omega_1 t \\ a_2 \cos \omega_2 t + b_2 \sin \omega_2 t \\ -a_2 \omega_2 \sin \omega_2 t + b_2 \omega_2 \cos \omega_2 t \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_1(t), y_1(t)$: periodic sol. $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_1}$

$x_2(t), y_2(t)$: $\dots\dots\dots$ $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_2}$

The solution $y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$ is periodic \iff

$\exists m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\frac{m}{\omega_1} = \frac{n}{\omega_2}$.

In this the period is $\tau = \frac{2\pi m}{\omega_1} = \frac{2\pi n}{\omega_2}$.

Polar coordinates. $(x_j, y_j) \rightarrow (r_j, \theta_j)$

$$\begin{cases} r_j' = 0 \\ \theta_j' = -\omega_j \end{cases} \quad j = 1, 2.$$

Finally, consider repeated (real) eigenvalues.

Example $x' = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} x$

$$x = c_1 e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{t^2}{2} \\ t \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$\lambda < 0$.

General solution formula using Jordan forms

Theorem Let A be a real matrix with real eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ and complex eigenvalues $\lambda_{k+1} = a_{k+1} + ib_{k+1}$, $\bar{\lambda}_{k+1} = a_{k+1} - ib_{k+1}$, \dots , $\lambda_n = a_n + ib_n$, $\bar{\lambda}_n = a_n - ib_n$ (all $a_j, b_j \in \mathbb{R}$, $j = k+1, \dots, n$). Then exists a basis $\{u_1, \dots, u_k, v_{k+1}, w_{k+1}, \dots, v_n, w_n\}$ for \mathbb{R}^{2n-k} such that $P = [u_1, \dots, u_k, v_{k+1}, w_{k+1}, \dots, v_n, w_n]$ is invertible and

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & B_r \end{bmatrix}$$

where each of the elementary Jordan blocks B_1, \dots, B_r is either of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \\ 0 & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix} (= \lambda I + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 0 \end{bmatrix}) \quad (1)$$

for λ one of the real eigenvalues of A or of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} D & I_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & D & I_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & D & I_2 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & D \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

with $D = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$, $I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and $0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, for $\lambda = a + bi$ one of the complex eigenvalues of A .

Theorem Under the assumption and conclusion of the previous Thm, the initial-value problem

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = Ax \\ x(0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

has the unique solution

$$x(t) = P \begin{bmatrix} e^{B_1 t} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{B_r t} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} x_0$$

an $m \times m$ matrix

If B_j is of the form (1) then

$$e^{B_j t} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t & t^2/2! & \dots & t^{m-1}/(m-1)! \\ 0 & 1 & t & \dots & t^{m-2}/(m-2)! \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & t^{m-3}/(m-3)! \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & t \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If B_j is a $2m \times 2m$ matrix of the form (2) then

$$e^{B_j t} = e^{\alpha t} \begin{bmatrix} R & Rt & Rt^2/2! & \dots & Rt^{m-1}/(m-1)! \\ 0 & R & Rt & \dots & Rt^{m-2}/(m-2)! \\ 0 & 0 & R & \dots & Rt^{m-3}/(m-3)! \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & Rt \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & R \end{bmatrix}$$

where $R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos bt & -\sin bt \\ \sin bt & \cos bt \end{bmatrix}$ (rotation by bt).

In particular, each component of $x(t)$ is a linear combination of

$$t^k e^{\alpha t} \cos \beta t, \quad t^k e^{\alpha t} \sin \beta t$$

where $\alpha \pm \beta i$ is an eigenvalue of A , and $0 \leq k \leq n_A - 1$. n_A is the number of rows (and columns) of A .

Note that the vectors that form ρ are generalized eigenvectors of A . u is a generalized eigenvector corresponding to an eigenvalue λ of A if $\exists k: (A - \lambda I)^k u = 0, u \neq 0, 1 \leq k \leq m$, where A is $n \times n$.
 of multiplicity m

In general, a matrix may not be diagonalizable. there may not be enough linearly independent eigenvectors. But, there are just enough linearly independent generalized eigenvectors to make A in a the Jordan form.

Stability Theory for $\dot{x} = Ax$.

More precisely, how stable is the critical pt 0?

Assume A is $n \times n$, real. Denote

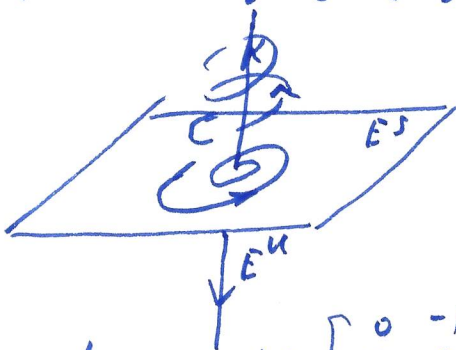
$E^s =$ span of generalized eigenvectors of A corresponding to eigenvalues with negative real parts. — call it stable subspace for $\dot{x} = Ax$,

$E^c =$ span of generalized eigenvectors of A corresponding to eigenvalues with zero real parts. — center subspace for $\dot{x} = Ax$,

$E^u =$ span of generalized eigenvectors of A corresponding to eigenvalues with positive real parts. — unstable subspace for $\dot{x} = Ax$.

[s: stable, c: center, u: unstable]

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



$\lambda_1 = -2 + i$. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\lambda_2 = 3$. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

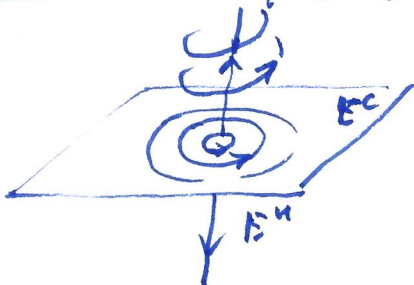
$E^s = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

$E^u = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

} difference
 $\lambda_1 = -2 + i$
 or $\lambda_2 = 3$

Example

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



$\lambda_1 = i$. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\lambda_2 = 2$. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$E^c = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

$E^u = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

Theorem Given A , $n \times n$, real, we have

$$\mathbb{R}^n = E^s \oplus E^u \oplus E^c,$$

and each of E^s , E^u , E^c is invariant under the flow $\mathbb{R}e^{At}$. i.e. $x_0 \in E^s$ (or E^u or E^c) then $x(t) = e^{At}x_0 \in E^s$ (or E^u or E^c).

Theorem The following are equivalent [$A: n \times n$, real]

(a) All eigenvalues of A have negative real part.

(b) $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n: e^{At}x_0 \rightarrow 0$ ($t \rightarrow \infty$)

$\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n, x_0 \neq 0, e^{At} \rightarrow \infty$ (as $t \rightarrow -\infty$)

(c) $\exists \underline{a}, c, m, M, k$ s.t. $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \in \mathbb{R}$
 $m|k|e^{-at} \leq |e^{At}x_0| \leq Me^{-ct}|x_0|$.

A similar result is true for the case that all eigenvalues of A have positive real part.

A final remark: nonhomogeneous system

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = Ax + b(t) \\ x(0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

$$b(t) = \begin{bmatrix} b_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ b_n(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad A: n \times n$$

Solution $x(t) = e^{At}x_0 + e^{At} \int_0^t e^{-A\tau} b(\tau) d\tau.$

Appendix Matrix Exponential = $I + B + \frac{1}{2!} B^2 + \dots$

Definition $e^B = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} B^k$ (B: a square matrix)
This converges absolutely!

- Properties
- ① $e^0 = I$ [obvious]
 - ② $e \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix}$
 - ③ $(e^B)^T = e^{B^T}$ $(\sum_k \frac{1}{k!} B^k)^T = \sum_k \frac{1}{k!} (B^k)^T = \dots$
 - ④ e^B is always invertible.
 $(e^B)^{-1} = e^{-B}$ [since $e^B \cdot e^{-B} = e^0 = I$]
 - ⑤ If A is diagonalizable: $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$
then $e^A = P \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$

$$\begin{aligned} [\sum_k \frac{1}{k!} A^k] P &= \sum_k \frac{1}{k!} (P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} P^{-1})^k \\ &= \sum_k \frac{1}{k!} P \underbrace{[\quad]}_{P^{-1}} P^{-1} \underbrace{[\quad]}_{P^{-1}} P^{-1} \dots P \underbrace{[\quad]}_{P^{-1}} P^{-1} \\ &= \sum_k \frac{1}{k!} P \underbrace{[\dots]^k}_{P^{-1}} P^{-1} = P \left(\sum_k \frac{1}{k!} [\quad] \right) P^{-1} \\ &= P \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Example
 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

⑥ $AB=BA \Rightarrow e^A e^B = e^B e^A = e^{A+B}$

Wf $e^A e^B = (\sum_k \frac{1}{k!} A^k) (\sum_l \frac{1}{l!} B^l) = \sum C_k$

$$\begin{aligned} C_k &= \frac{1}{k!} A^k + \frac{1}{(k-1)!} A^{k-1} B + \frac{1}{(k-2)!} A^{k-2} \frac{1}{2!} B^2 \\ &\quad + \dots + A \frac{1}{(k-1)!} B^{k-1} + \frac{1}{k!} B^k \\ &= \frac{1}{k!} [A^k + \binom{k}{k-1} A^{k-1} B + \dots + \binom{k}{1} A B^{k-1} + B^k] \\ &\stackrel{\text{Use } AB=BA}{=} \frac{1}{k!} (A+B)^k \quad \text{Q.E.D.} \end{aligned}$$

⑦ If $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & A_r \end{bmatrix}$ then $e^A = \begin{bmatrix} e^{A_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{A_r} \end{bmatrix}$ □ 22
 where A_1, \dots, A_r are square matrices.

⑧ $\det e^A = e^{\text{Tr} A} > 0$.

PF. Jordan form: $p^{-1} A p = J = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & J_s \end{bmatrix}$
 $A = p J p^{-1}$, $e^A = p e^J p^{-1}$, $e^J = \begin{bmatrix} e^{J_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{J_s} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\det e^A = \det e^J = \prod_{j=1}^s \det e^{J_j}$$

Each $J_k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_k & & \\ & \lambda_k & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}_{m_k \times m_k}$ $\text{Tr} J_k = \lambda_k + \dots + \lambda_k = m_k \lambda_k$

$$\text{Tr} A = \text{Tr} J = \sum_{k=1}^s \text{Tr} J_k = \sum_{k=1}^s m_k \lambda_k$$

$$\det e^{J_k} = \underbrace{e^{\lambda_k} \dots e^{\lambda_k}}_{m_k} = e^{m_k \lambda_k} = e^{\text{tr} J_k}$$

$$\det e^A = e^{\sum_{k=1}^s \text{tr} J_k} = e^{\text{Tr} A} \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

⑨ \vec{u} is an eigenvector of A corresponding to eigenvalue $\lambda \Rightarrow \vec{u}$ is e-vector of e^A for e^λ .

Theorem If A is $n \times n$, then $e^A = d_0 I + d_1 A + \dots + d_{n-1} A^{n-1}$
 for some scalars d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{n-1} . (dep. on A)

PF By the Cayley-Hamilton Thm: $f(A) = 0$
 where $f(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \hat{d}_0 + \hat{d}_1 \lambda + \dots + \hat{d}_n \lambda^n$, $\hat{d}_n = 1$

Thus. $A^n =$ linear combination of I, A, \dots, A^{n-1}
 $A^{n+1} =$ linear combination of A, A^2, \dots, A^n
 $=$ linear combination of I, A, \dots, A^{n-1}

$e^A = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k$ is a linear combination
 of I, A, \dots, A^{n-1} . Q.E.D.

Thm. If $J = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ & \lambda & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$ is a Jordan block ($\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$),
 then $e^J = e^\lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

(see p. 17.)

Try $m=3$, and calculate directly to see the pattern.

Theorem If A is an $n \times n$ nonsingular matrix then there exists an $n \times n$ matrix B such that $e^B = A$.

Now, look at e^{At} . We have

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

$$\textcircled{2} e^{At} e^{As} = e^{A(t+s)}$$

$$\textcircled{3} e^{At} \cdot e^{-At} = I \implies e^{-At} = (e^{At})^{-1}$$