

# Math 286

## Introduction to Differential Equations

Thomas Honold



ZJU-UIUC Institute



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# Outline

- 1 Classification of Autonomous Linear  $2 \times 2$  Systems
- 2 Stability of Autonomous Linear Systems
- 3 A Digression

# Today's Lecture:

The goal of this section is to examine the qualitative behaviour, including the asymptotics for  $t \rightarrow \infty$  of solutions  $\mathbf{y}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $t \mapsto \mathbf{y}(t) = (y_1(t), y_2(t))^T$ , of ODE systems of the form

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b} \quad \text{with } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

and corresponding IVP's  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}(t_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$ .

### Facts already known

- 1 All maximal solutions are parametric plane curves with domain  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- 2 The corresponding non-parametric curves  $\{\mathbf{y}(t); t \in \mathbb{R}\}$  (*orbits, trajectories*) partition  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (the *phase plane*).
- 3 Solutions  $\mathbf{y}_1(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_2(t)$  determine the same orbit iff  $\mathbf{y}_2(t) = \mathbf{y}_1(t + t_0)$  for some  $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

These hold, mutatis mutandis, also for higher-dimensional autonomous linear systems and are consequences of the sharpened version of the EUT in the linear case.

In view of (3) we only need to consider IVP's with  $t_0 = 0$ .

## Definition

A point  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is said to be a *critical point* of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  if there is the constant solution  $\mathbf{y}(t) \equiv \mathbf{y}_0$ ; equivalently,  $\{\mathbf{y}_0\}$  is an orbit.

Clearly this equivalent to  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Non-constant solutions  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  satisfy  $\mathbf{y}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  and hence are smooth.

Tangent vectors (velocity vectors) at non-critical points are uniquely determined (from Property (3) or directly from  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$ ).

$\implies$  Orbits have a direction of traverse at each of their points.

This is indicated in a plot of the *direction field* (the vector field  $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ ) and in a *phase portrait* (representative collection of orbits) by corresponding arrows.

Since the critical points of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  are the solutions of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{b}$ , they form an affine subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . The possible cases are:

- 1 No critical point ( $\iff \text{rk } \mathbf{A} \leq 1 \wedge \mathbf{b} \notin \text{csp } \mathbf{A}$ );
- 2 exactly one critical point ( $\iff \text{rk } \mathbf{A} = 2$ );
- 3 a critical line ( $\iff \text{rk } \mathbf{A} = 1 \wedge \mathbf{b} \in \text{csp } \mathbf{A}$ ).
- 4 All points of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are critical ( $\iff \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0} \wedge \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ ).

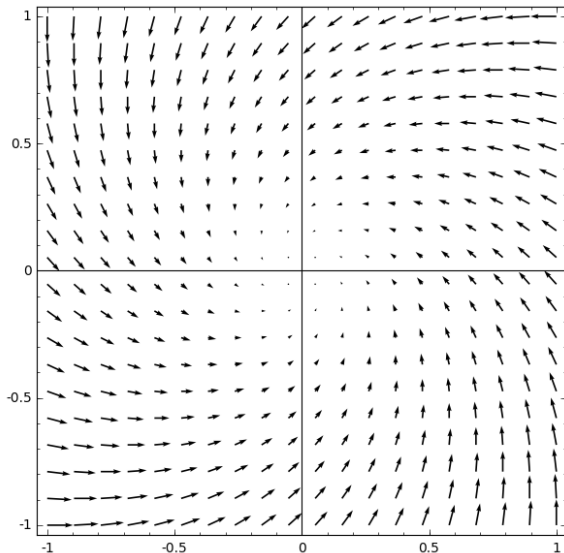


Figure: Direction field of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

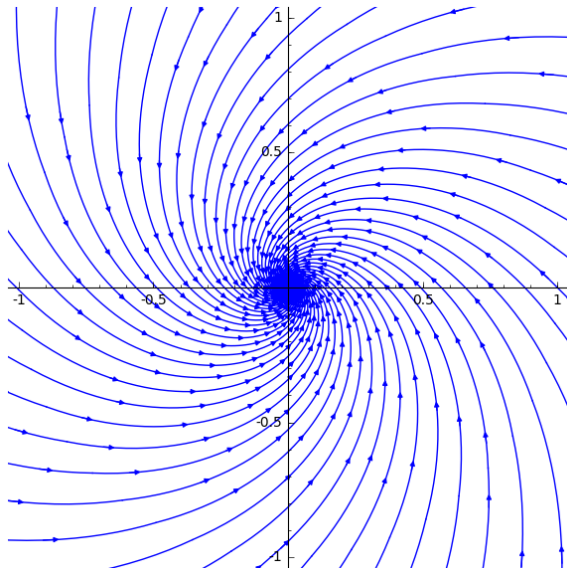


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

## Observation

An affine coordinate change  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{v}$  ( $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  invertible,  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ) preserves most of the qualitative properties of the solutions (and of a phase portrait). If  $\mathbf{S}$  is not orthogonal, however, it may distort angles and distances.

The effect on the ODE of such a coordinate transformation is:

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{v},$$

$$\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{b}),$$

i.e., the transformed system is  $\mathbf{z}' = \hat{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{z} + \hat{\mathbf{b}}$  with  $\hat{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{b})$ .

## Consequences

- If there are critical points ( $\iff$  there exists  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ ), we can transform the system into a homogeneous system  $\mathbf{z}' = \hat{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{z}$  (which has at least one critical point, viz. the origin  $\mathbf{0}$ ). The critical points of  $\mathbf{z}' = \hat{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{z}$  are those in  $\text{rker}(\hat{\mathbf{A}})$ .
- When classifying homogeneous systems  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ , we only need to consider one matrix from each complex similarity class that contains a real matrix.



## Consequences cont'd

*Reason:* If  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  are real and similar over  $\mathbb{C}$ , they must be similar over  $\mathbb{R}$ ; see subsequent exercise. Thus we can find a linear coordinate transformation  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}$ ,  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ , which transforms  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  into  $\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{z}$ .

## Exercise

Suppose that  $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  satisfy  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}$ .

- a) Setting  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{P} + i\mathbf{Q}$  with  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , show that  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}$  satisfy the matrix equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}$ .
- b) Show that any matrix  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{P} + \lambda\mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , satisfies this matrix equation as well.
- c) Show that there exists  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{P} + \lambda\mathbf{Q}$  is invertible.

*Hint:* Show that  $\lambda \mapsto \det(\mathbf{P} + \lambda\mathbf{Q})$  is a polynomial function.

- d) Use a), b), c) to show that there exists  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}$ .

# The Classification

First we consider the genuinely inhomogeneous systems  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$ , i.e., those with  $\mathbf{b} \notin \text{csp}(\mathbf{A})$  and hence without a critical point/stationary solution.

Up to similarity, there are three cases to consider: (1)  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ ; (2)  $\text{rk } \mathbf{A} = 1$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonalisable, i.e., similar to  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ ; (3)  $\text{rk } \mathbf{A} = 1$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  is not diagonalisable, i.e.,  $\mathbf{A}$  has the eigenvalue 0 with algebraic multiplicity 2 and geometric multiplicity 1, and hence is similar to  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Case 1:**  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

The general solution is  $\mathbf{y}(t) = t\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$ , i.e., parallel lines with direction vector  $\mathbf{b}$  parametrized in the usual way.

A linear coordinate transformation  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}$  (which doesn't change  $\mathbf{A}$ ) could be applied to move  $\mathbf{b}$  to any fixed nonzero vector, e.g.,  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0)^T$ , but this is hardly necessary in this case.

**Case 2:**  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $b_1 \neq 0$ .

We can apply a coordinate change of the form

$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{v} = s\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{v}$  with  $s \neq 0$  (which does not change  $\mathbf{A}$ ) to move  $\mathbf{b}$  into  $\mathbf{e}_1$ . (The explicit transformation is  $z_1 = y_1/b_1$ ,  $z_2 = (y_2 + b_2/\lambda)/b_1$ .) The new system is equivalent to the scalar equations  $y'_1 = 1$ ,  $y'_2 = \lambda y_2$ , which has the general solution

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} t + c_1 \\ c_2 e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The orbits, written as graphs  $y(x)$  ( $x \triangleq y_1$ ,  $y \triangleq y_2$ ) are  $y(x) = c e^{\lambda x}$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  (integral curves of  $y' = \lambda y$ ). This can be seen by taking the solution  $t \mapsto \mathbf{y}(t - c_1) = \begin{pmatrix} c_2 e^{-\lambda c_1} e^{\lambda t} \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t \\ c e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix}$  with  $c = c_2 e^{-\lambda c_1}$ , which has the same orbit as  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  and is just the standard parametrization of the graph of  $y(x) = c e^{\lambda x}$ .

Case 3:  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $b_1 \neq 0$ .

Again we may assume  $\mathbf{b} = (1, 0)^T$ , and in this case obtain the system  $y_1' = 1$ ,  $y_2' = y_1$ , which has general solution

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} t + c_1 \\ t^2/2 + c_1 t + c_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

From  $\mathbf{y}(t - c_1) = \begin{pmatrix} t \\ t^2/2 + c_1^2/2 + c_2 \end{pmatrix}$  we see (using a further scaling  $\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}$ ) that the orbits, written as graphs  $y(x)$  ( $x \triangleq y_1$ ,  $y \triangleq y_2$ ) are  $y(x) = x^2 + c$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  (integral curves of  $y' = 2x$ ).

Note that families of parabolas, in order to qualify for the orbits of a system  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$ , must partition the plane. Up to a scaling factor this leaves only the possibility of the family which arises from a fixed parabola by shifting it along its axis.

In the remaining cases  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  has at least one critical point. After a translation, one of these may be taken as the origin  $(0, 0)$ , implying that the transformed system is homogeneous.

We consider the cases with non-invertible  $\mathbf{A}$  first.

**Case 4:**  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

The general solution is  $\mathbf{y}(t) \equiv \mathbf{c}$ . All points of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are critical.

**Case 5:**  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

The system is equivalent to  $y_1' = 0$ ,  $y_2' = \lambda y_2$  and has general solution

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The orbits are the points with  $c_2 = 0$  (i.e. the points on the  $x$ -axis, which forms the critical line in this case), and the vertical rays  $(c_1, 0) \pm \mathbb{R}^+(0, 1)$ . The direction of traverse of the rays depends on the sign of  $\lambda$ .

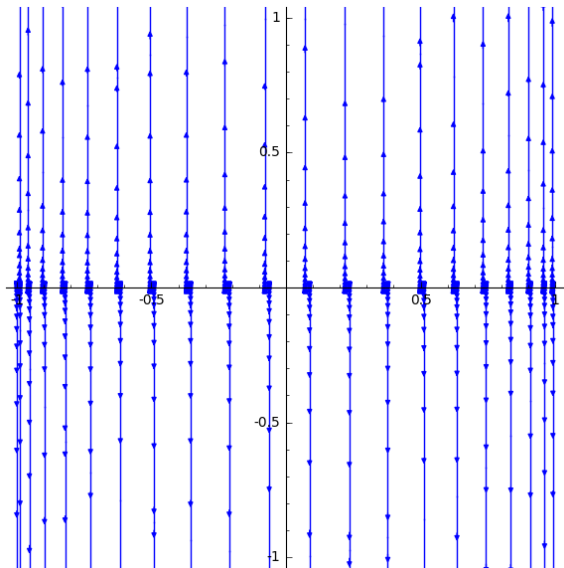


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

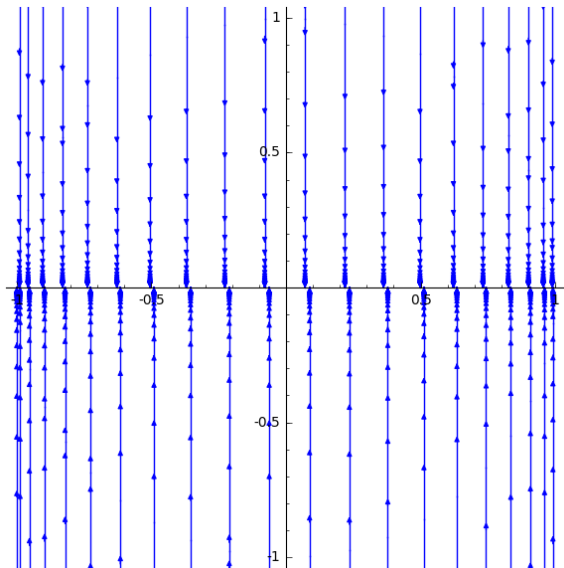


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

**Case 6:**  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

The system is equivalent to  $y_1' = 0$ ,  $y_2' = y_1$  and has general solution

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_1 t + c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ c_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The orbits are the points with  $c_1 = 0$  (i.e. the points on the  $y$ -axis, which forms the critical line in this case), and the vertical lines  $(c_1, c_2) + \mathbb{R}(0, c_1) = (c_1, 0) + \mathbb{R}(0, 1)$ . The direction of traverse of the lines is determined by the sign of  $c_1$ . It is N (northward) in the right half plane  $x > 0$  and S (southward) in the left half plane  $x < 0$ .



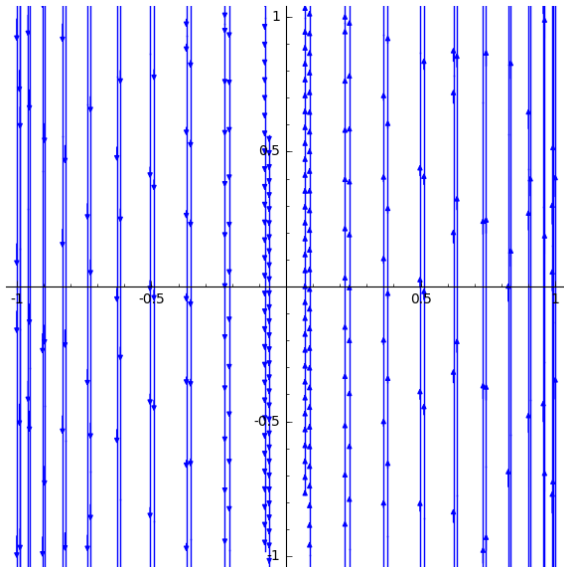


Figure: Phase portrait of  $y' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} y$

It remains to consider representatives of the systems with invertible  $\mathbf{A}$ . These have exactly one critical point, which can be taken as the origin  $(0, 0)$ , making the system homogeneous.

If  $\mathbf{A}$  has two distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  then  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonalizable and can be taken as the diagonal matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$ . If  $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$  then necessarily  $\lambda_2 = \bar{\lambda}_1$ .

If  $\mathbf{A}$  has only one eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of multiplicity 2 then necessarily  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , and either  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonalizable and equal to  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \mathbf{I}_2$  or  $\mathbf{A}$  is not diagonalizable and similar to  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 1 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ .

These cases can be easily distinguished: If  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  then  $\chi_{\mathbf{A}}(X) = X^2 - (a + d)X + ad - bc$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_{1/2} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( a + d \pm \sqrt{(a + d)^2 - 4(ad - bc)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( a + d \pm \sqrt{(a - d)^2 + 4bc} \right).\end{aligned}$$

For example,  $\mathbf{A}$  has purely imaginary eigenvalues iff the trace is zero (i.e.,  $d = -a$ ) and  $a^2 + bc < 0$ ; in this case  $\lambda_{1/2} = \pm i\sqrt{-a^2 - bc}$ .

## Case 7: Two distinct nonzero real eigenvalues

If the eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  with corresponding eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$  then the general real solution is

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \mathbf{v}_2, \quad c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The four rays  $\mathbb{R}^+(\pm \mathbf{v}_1), \mathbb{R}^+(\pm \mathbf{v}_2)$  form orbits (arising from solutions with  $c_1 = 0$  or  $c_2 = 0$ ).

- 1  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > 0$ : Non-stationary solutions  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  are unbounded for  $t \rightarrow \infty$  and satisfy  $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ . In this case the critical point  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *nodal source*.
- 2  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < 0$ : Compared with (1), the roles of  $\pm\infty$  are reversed. In particular we have  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$  for every non-constant solution. Here  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *nodal sink*.
- 3  $\lambda_1 > 0 > \lambda_2$ : Here we have  $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} e^{\lambda_1 t} (\pm \mathbf{v}_1) = \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} e^{\lambda_2 t} (\pm \mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{0}$ , i.e., the arrows point outwards (inwards) on the two rays contained in  $\mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}_1$  (resp., in  $\mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}_2$ ). For  $t \rightarrow \infty$  all non-constant solutions approach a ray solution contained in  $\mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}_1$  (resp., for  $t \rightarrow -\infty$  emerge from a ray solution contained in  $\mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}_2$ ). In this case  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *saddle point*.

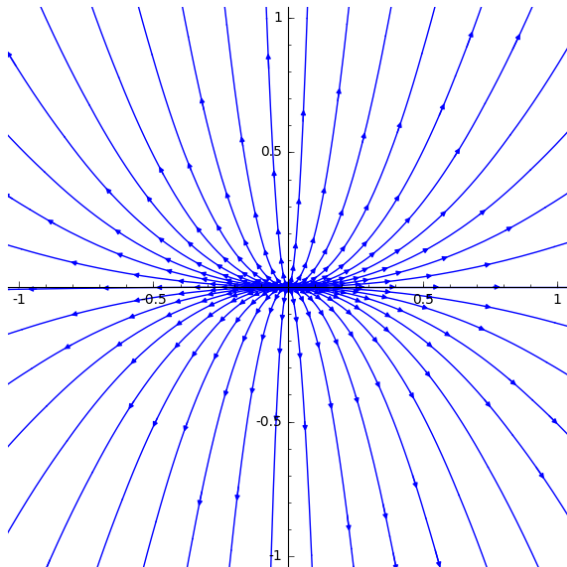


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

The origin is a nodal source.

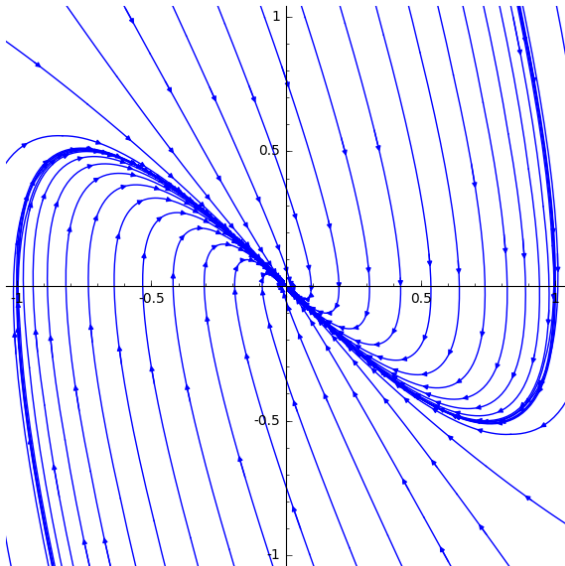


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

The origin is a nodal sink.

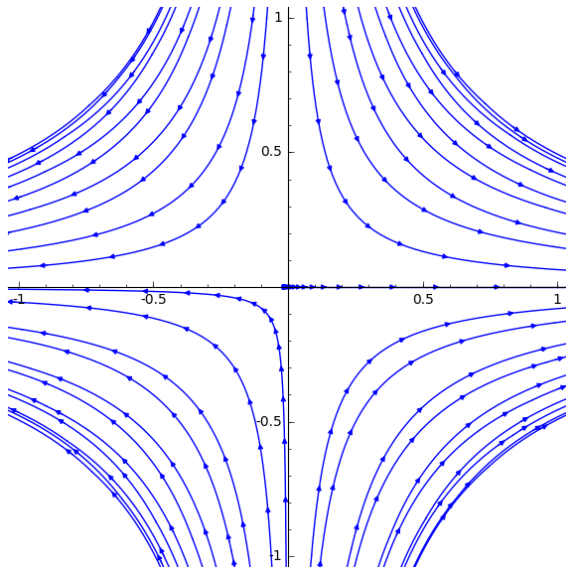


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$   
The origin is a saddle point.

## Exercise

- a) Suppose that  $\mathbf{A}$  has two distinct real eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  with corresponding eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ . Show that for  $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$  the tangent unit vector  $\frac{\mathbf{y}'(t)}{|\mathbf{y}'(t)|}$  of any non-constant solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  approaches the direction of one of the four rays  $\mathbb{R}^+(\pm\mathbf{v}_1), \mathbb{R}^+(\pm\mathbf{v}_2)$  (i.e.,  $\pm\frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{|\mathbf{v}_1|}, \pm\frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{|\mathbf{v}_2|}$ ).
- b) Work out the four possible cases (including the explicit determination of the rays) for the system

$$\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}.$$

## Case 8: Two equal (real) eigenvalues, diagonalisable

In this case  $\mathbf{A} = \lambda \mathbf{I}_2$  and the general solution is

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 e^{\lambda t} \\ c_2 e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\implies \mathbf{y}(t)$  moves on the ray  $\mathbb{R}^+(c_1, c_2)$ , provided that  $(c_1, c_2) \neq (0, 0)$ . The direction of traverse is determined by the sign of  $\lambda$ .

One sees that the orbits of non-constant solutions are precisely the rays  $\mathbb{R}^+ \mathbf{c}$ ,  $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ . Accordingly, the origin is called a *star point* in this case.



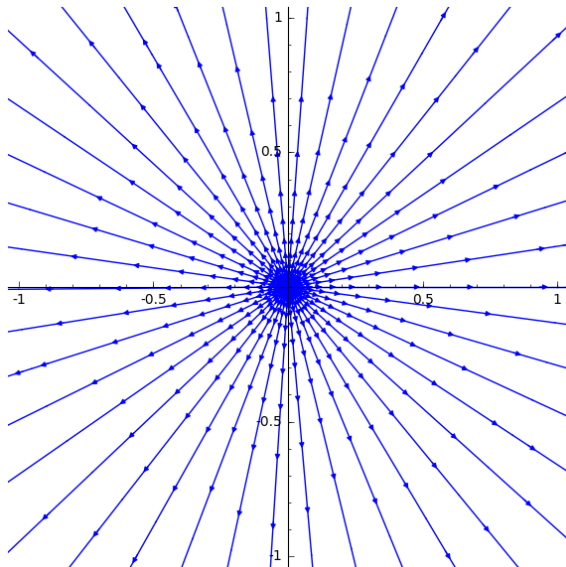


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

The origin is a star point.

## Exercise

Suppose  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \\ & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \neq 0$ . (This is essentially Case 7 with  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{e}_2$ , with the possibility  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$  included; cf. Case 8.)

- a) Which one-parameter family of functions  $y(x)$  gives rise to the orbits of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ ? From which scalar ODE does this family arise?

*Hint:* Eliminate  $t$ .

- b) Under which conditions on  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  do the orbits form straight lines, respectively, hyperbolas?
- c) What can you conclude from a), b) about the form of the orbits in Case 7 and Case 8 in general?

## Case 9: Two equal (real) eigenvalues, not diagonalisable

In this case the general solution is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{y}(t) &= c_1 (e^{\lambda t} \mathbf{v} + t e^{\lambda t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v}) + c_2 e^{\lambda t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v} \\ &= c_1 e^{\lambda t} \mathbf{v} + (c_1 t + c_2) e^{\lambda t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v},\end{aligned}$$

where  $\lambda$  denotes the eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is any nonzero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that is not an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  ( $\mathbf{v}$  can be taken as  $\mathbf{e}_1$  or  $\mathbf{e}_2$ ).

There are only two ray orbits, viz.  $\pm \mathbb{R}^+ (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v}$  (contained in the line through the origin spanned by the eigenvector).

The tangent direction of every non-constant solution approaches one of the two ray directions for  $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ , as can be seen from

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{y}'(t) &= c_1 \lambda e^{\lambda t} \mathbf{v} + c_2 \lambda e^{\lambda t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v} + c_1 (1 + \lambda t) e^{\lambda t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v} \\ &= t e^{\lambda t} \left[ c_1 \lambda (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v} + \frac{c_1 + c_2 \lambda}{t} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v} + \frac{c_1 \lambda}{t} \mathbf{v} \right].\end{aligned}$$

Accordingly,  $\mathbf{0}$  is called an *improper node* in this case.

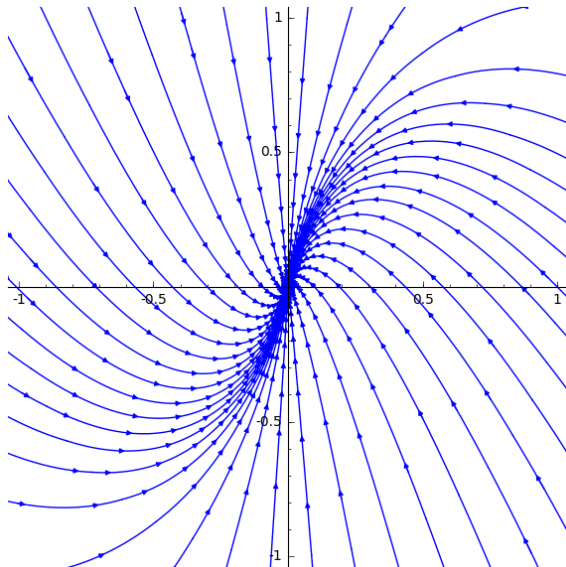


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$   
The origin is an improper node.

## Case 10: A pair of conjugate complex eigenvalues

If the eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = \mu + i\alpha$ ,  $\lambda_2 = \mu - i\alpha$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$  are corresponding eigenvectors satisfying  $\overline{\mathbf{v}_1} = \mathbf{v}_2$ , a complex fundamental system of solutions is  $\mathbf{y}_1(t) = e^{(\mu+i\alpha)t}\mathbf{v}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_2(t) = \overline{\mathbf{y}_1(t)} = e^{(\mu-i\alpha)t}\overline{\mathbf{v}_1}$ .

A real fundamental system of solutions is obtained by extracting real and imaginary part of one complex fundamental solution, say  $\mathbf{y}_1(t)$ , and is given by

$$t \mapsto e^{\mu t} [\cos(\alpha t) \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}_1 - \sin(\alpha t) \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}_1],$$

$$t \mapsto e^{\mu t} [\cos(\alpha t) \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}_1 + \sin(\alpha t) \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}_1].$$

- 1  $\mu > 0$ : In this case non-constant solutions are unbounded for  $t \rightarrow \infty$  and spiral towards  $\mathbf{0}$  for  $t \rightarrow -\infty$ . The critical point  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *spiral source*.
- 2  $\mu < 0$ : The roles of  $\pm\infty$  are reversed and solutions spiral into  $\mathbf{0}$  for  $t \rightarrow +\infty$ . The critical point  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *spiral sink*.
- 3  $\mu = 0$ : Orbits of non-constant solutions are closed curves (in fact ellipses), and are traversed periodically (with period of revolution  $2\pi/\alpha$ ). The critical point  $\mathbf{0}$  is called a *center*.

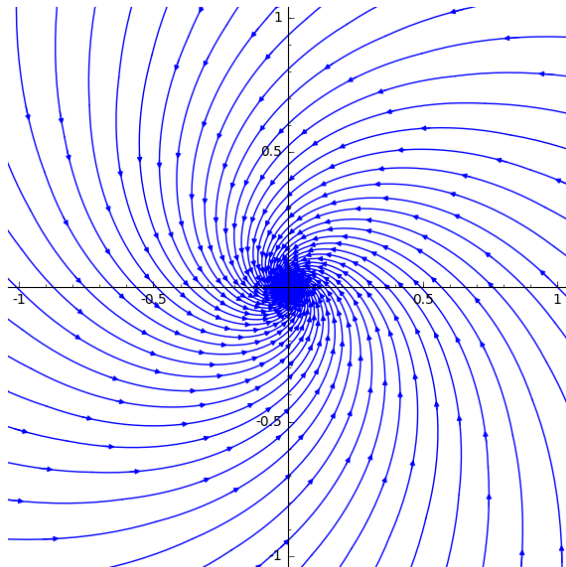


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

The origin is a spiral sink.

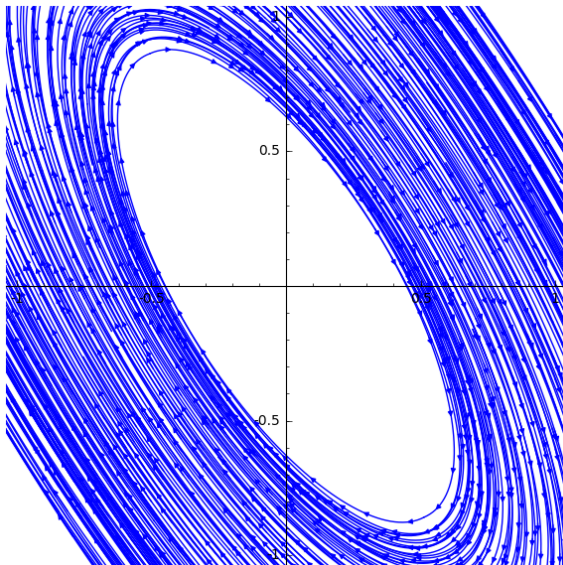


Figure: Phase portrait of  $\mathbf{y}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$

The origin is a center.

## Stability of Autonomous Linear Systems $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$

Recall that a steady-state solution (equilibrium solution, constant solution)  $y(t) \equiv y_0$  of a scalar autonomous ODE  $y' = f(y)$  was called *asymptotically stable* if there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that any solution  $y(t)$  satisfying  $|y(0) - y_0| < \delta$  exists for all  $t > 0$  and satisfies  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y(t) = y_0$  (and “unstable” otherwise).

### Definition

Suppose  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is a critical point of the autonomous linear system  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_0 + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{y}(t) \equiv \mathbf{y}_0$  is a solution).

- 1  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is said to be *stable* if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that every solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  with  $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{y}_0| < \delta$  satisfies

$$|\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{y}_0| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0;$$

- 2  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is said to be *asymptotically stable* if there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that every solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  with  $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{y}_0| < \delta$  satisfies  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{y}_0$ ;
- 3  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is said to be *unstable* otherwise.



## Notes

- 1 The definitions are stated in a manner that makes sense for not necessarily linear autonomous systems  $\mathbf{y}' = f(\mathbf{y})$ . For linear autonomous systems (1) simplifies to “every solution is bounded on  $[0, \infty)$ ” and (2) to “every solution satisfies  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{y}_0$ ”.
- 2 A critical point  $\mathbf{y}_0$  of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  is stable/asymptotically stable/unstable iff the critical point  $\mathbf{0}$  of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  has this property. (This follows from the fact that  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  solves  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$  iff  $\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{y}_0$  solves  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ .) Hence (1)–(3) are actually properties of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ . Accordingly we also say that  $\mathbf{A}$  is stable/asymptotically stable/unstable in the respective cases.
- 3 A system with more than one critical point cannot be asymptotically stable. For this note that the critical points form an affine subspace  $C$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If the dimension of  $C$  is  $\geq 1$  then there are constant solutions arbitrarily close to but different from a given constant solution  $\mathbf{y}(t) \equiv \mathbf{y}_0$ , and these don't converge to  $\mathbf{y}_0$ .

## Notes (cont'd)

- 4 The definition can be extended to non-constant solutions  $\mathbf{y}_0(t)$  in the obvious way. For linear systems this doesn't yield anything substantially new, however, because for any further solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  the difference is a solution of the associated homogeneous system.

Using the reduction to the homogeneous case  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  in Note 2, we now show the simplifications announced in Note 1:

(1) If  $\mathbf{0}$  is a stable point of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\mathbf{y}(0)| < \delta$  implies  $|\mathbf{y}(t)| < 1$  for  $t \geq 0$ . If  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  is an arbitrary nonzero solution, there exists  $\lambda > 0$  such that  $|\lambda \mathbf{y}(0)| < \delta$  (take  $\lambda = \frac{\delta}{2|\mathbf{y}(0)|}$ ). Since  $\lambda \mathbf{y}(t)$  is a solution as well, this implies  $|\lambda \mathbf{y}(t)| < 1$  and hence  $|\mathbf{y}(t)| < 1/\lambda$  for all  $t \geq 0$ .

Conversely, suppose every solution of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  is bounded on  $[0, \infty)$  and let  $\mathbf{y}_1(t), \dots, \mathbf{y}_n(t)$  be a fundamental system of solutions of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ . Then there exist  $M, m > 0$  such that  $|\mathbf{y}_j(t)| \leq M$  for  $t \geq 0$  and  $1 \leq j \leq n$  (boundedness assumption) and  $|c_1 \mathbf{y}_1(0) + \dots + c_n \mathbf{y}_n(0)| \geq m$  for all  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|\mathbf{c}| = 1$  (compactness of the unit sphere  $S^{n-1} = S_1(\mathbf{0})$ ).

## Notes (cont'd)

Now we claim that in the definition of stability of  $\mathbf{0}$  we can choose  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon m}{\sqrt{n} M}$ . Indeed, assume  $\mathbf{y}(t) = c_1 \mathbf{y}_1(t) + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{y}_n(t)$  is a

nonzero solution of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  satisfying

$$|c_1 \mathbf{y}_1(0) + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{y}_n(0)| < \frac{\epsilon m}{\sqrt{n} M}. \text{ Then we must have } |\mathbf{c}| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{n} M}$$

(since  $\mathbf{c} = |\mathbf{c}| \mathbf{s}$  with  $|\mathbf{s}| = 1$ ), and hence

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{y}(t)| &\leq |c_1| |\mathbf{y}_1(t)| + \cdots + |c_n| |\mathbf{y}_n(t)| \\ &\leq M (|c_1| + \cdots + |c_n|) \leq M \sqrt{n} |\mathbf{c}| < \epsilon \quad \text{for } t \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

(2) Suppose  $\mathbf{0}$  is an asymptotically stable point of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  and  $\delta > 0$  is such that  $|\mathbf{y}(0)| < \delta$  implies  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ . For an arbitrary nonzero solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  there exists  $\lambda > 0$  such that  $|\lambda \mathbf{y}(0)| < \delta$  (cf. earlier argument) and hence  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \lambda \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ . But then clearly  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$  as well.

## Theorem

Suppose  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is a critical point of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}$ .

- 1  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is asymptotically stable iff all eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  have real part  $< 0$ .
- 2  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is stable iff (i) all eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  have real part  $\leq 0$  and (ii) the geometric multiplicity of each purely imaginary eigenvalue (including zero) equals the algebraic multiplicity.

Consequently,  $\mathbf{y}_0$  is unstable iff  $\mathbf{A}$  has at least one eigenvalue with positive real part or a purely imaginary eigenvalue with  $\text{geom.mult} < \text{alg.mult}$ .

## Proof.

We may assume that  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ .

(1) Suppose  $\mathbf{A}$  has distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$  with algebraic multiplicities  $m_1, \dots, m_r$ .

We use the fact that the entries of  $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ , and likewise of any solution  $\mathbf{y}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{y}(0)$ , are linear combinations of functions of the form  $t^k e^{\lambda_i t}$  with  $0 \leq k < m_i$ . This can be worked out directly for matrices in JCF and then follows for general  $\mathbf{A}$  from the equation  $e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{S}e^{\mathbf{J}t}\mathbf{S}^{-1}$ ; or use the “new method” to compute  $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$ .

$$|t^k e^{\lambda t}| = t^k e^{(\operatorname{Re} \lambda + i \operatorname{Im} \lambda)t} = t^k e^{(\operatorname{Re} \lambda)t} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for } t \rightarrow +\infty$$

holds iff  $\operatorname{Re} \lambda < 0$ . From this the if-part is immediate.

For the converse, assume  $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_1 \geq 0$  and let  $\mathbf{v}_1$  be a corresponding eigenvector.

$\implies \mathbf{y}(t) = e^{\lambda_1 t} \mathbf{v}_1$  is a solution of  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ .

Since  $e^{\lambda_1 t} \not\rightarrow 0$  for  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , the same holds for at least one coordinate function of  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  (in fact for each coordinate in which  $\mathbf{v}_1$  has a nonzero entry). Thus there exists a solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  with  $\mathbf{y}(t) \not\rightarrow \mathbf{0}$  for  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . As noted previously, this implies that the system cannot be asymptotically stable.

## Proof cont'd.

(2) If the stated conditions are satisfied, eigenspaces corresponding to purely imaginary eigenvalues  $\lambda = i\alpha$  have a basis consisting of eigenvectors and account only for fundamental solutions of the form  $\mathbf{y}(t) = e^{i\alpha t} \mathbf{v}$  with  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . Since such solutions are bounded, and all other eigenvalues have negative real part (accounting for fundamental solutions with limit  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ ), all solutions are bounded on  $[0, \infty)$ . As noted previously, this is equivalent to stability of the system.

Conversely, suppose that the stated conditions are not satisfied. Clearly an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  with  $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) > 0$  yields a solution that is unbounded on  $[0, \infty)$ . A purely imaginary eigenvalue  $\lambda = i\alpha$  with  $\text{geom.mult} < \text{alg.mult}$  has an associated generalized eigenvector  $\mathbf{w}$  with  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{w} \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})^2 \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$ , and hence yields a solution of the form

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = e^{i\alpha t} \mathbf{w} + t e^{i\alpha t} \underbrace{(\mathbf{A} - i\alpha \mathbf{I})\mathbf{w}}_{\neq \mathbf{0}}.$$

Since such solutions are unbounded on  $[0, \infty)$  (because of the factor  $t$ ), the system cannot be stable in either case. □

## The case $n = 2$

A nonzero real (!) matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  is asymptotically stable iff  $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = a + d < 0 \wedge \det(\mathbf{A}) = ad - bc > 0$ , and stable but not asymptotically stable iff  $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = 0 \wedge \det(\mathbf{A}) \geq 0$ .

This follows from  $a + d = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ ,  $ad - bc = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$  and

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( a + d \pm \sqrt{(a + d)^2 - 4(ad - bc)} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( a + d \pm \sqrt{(a - d)^2 + 4bc} \right)$$

by inspection. (Consider the two possible cases (i)  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  and (ii)  $\lambda_1 = \bar{\lambda}_2 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ .)

Thus nodal and spiral sinks are asymptotically stable; nodal and spiral sources and saddle points are unstable; centers are stable but not asymptotically stable; and star points and improper nodes can be either asymptotically stable or unstable, depending on the sign of the (real) eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

# A Digression

Solving  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  by a Change-of-Variables

Recall that the general solution of an autonomous (= time-independent) homogeneous linear system  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  is  $\mathbf{y}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{y}(0)$ , where  $\mathbf{y}(0) \in \mathbb{C}^n$  can be arbitrarily chosen.

## Change of Variables

Suppose  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  solves  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{z}(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{y}(t)$  for some  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ .

$$\mathbf{z}'(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{y}'(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{z}(t)$$

In terms of the inverse  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}$  this says that the change of variables  $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}(t)$  transforms  $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$  into  $\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}$ . The initial values transform as  $\mathbf{y}(0) = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}(0)$ ,  $\mathbf{z}(0) = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{y}(0)$ .



## Example

We solve the initial value problem

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -8 & -12 & -6 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}, \quad \mathbf{y}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This system arises from the scalar 3rd-order equation

$y''' = -6y'' - 12y' - 8y$  by order reduction, i.e., the substitution  $(y_1, y_2, y_3) = (y, y', y'')$ . The initial value  $\mathbf{y}(0) = (1, 0, -2)^T$  corresponds to  $y(0) = 1, y'(0) = 0, y''(0) = -2$ .

From previous considerations we know that  $\chi_{\mathbf{A}}(X) = (X + 2)^3$  and

$\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{A} + 2\mathbf{I}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ -8 & -12 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$  satisfies  $\mathbf{N}^3 = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{N}^2 \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

One finds that  $\mathbf{N}^2 \mathbf{e}_1 = (4, -8, 16)^T \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

$\Rightarrow$  The matrix  $\mathbf{J}$  of  $f_{\mathbf{A}}$  with respect to the basis  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{N}\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{N}^2\mathbf{e}_1\}$  is in JCF, i.e.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 16 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -8 & -12 & -6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 16 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Example (cont'd)

The system  $\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{J}\mathbf{z}$ , i.e.,  $z_1' = -2z_1$ ,  $z_2' = z_1 - 2z_2$ ,  $z_3' = z_2 - 2z_3$ , is solved by

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = e^{-2t} \exp \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} t \right] \mathbf{z}(0) = e^{-2t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ t & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}t^2 & t & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{z}(0).$$

$\mathbf{z}(0)$  is determined from

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{y}(0) = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 16 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{z}(0),$$

i.e.,  $\mathbf{z}(0) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, 0)^T$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}(t) &= \mathbf{S}\mathbf{z}(t) = e^{-2t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 16 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ t & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}t^2 & t & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= e^{-2t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & 16 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{t}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{t^2}{4} + \frac{t}{4} \end{pmatrix} = e^{-2t} \begin{pmatrix} t^2 + 2t + 1 \\ -2t^2 - 2t \\ 4t^2 - 2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$