(a) Show that any solution $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}(t)$ can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = c_1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) + \dots + c_n \mathbf{x}^{(n)}(t)$$

for suitable constants c_1, \ldots, c_n .

Hint: Use the result of Problem 12 of Section 7.3, and also Problem 8 above.

(b) Show that the expression for the solution $\mathbf{z}(t)$ in part (a) is unique; that is, if $\mathbf{z}(t) = k_1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) + \cdots + k_n \mathbf{x}^{(n)}(t)$, then $k_1 = c_1, \dots, k_n = c_n$.

Hint: Show that $(k_1 - c_1)\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) + \cdots + (k_n - c_n)\mathbf{x}^{(n)}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ for each t in $\alpha < t < \beta$, and use the linear independence of $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}$.

7.5 Homogeneous Linear Systems with Constant Coefficients

We will concentrate most of our attention on systems of homogeneous linear equations with constant coefficients—that is, systems of the form

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x},\tag{1}$$

where **A** is a constant $n \times n$ matrix. Unless stated otherwise, we will assume further that all the elements of **A** are real (rather than complex) numbers.

If n = 1, then the system reduces to a single first order equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = ax, (2)$$

whose solution is $x = ce^{at}$. Note that x = 0 is the only equilibrium solution if $a \neq 0$. If a < 0, then other solutions approach x = 0 as t increases, and in this case we say that x = 0 is an asymptotically stable equilibrium solution. On the other hand, if a > 0, then x = 0 is unstable, since other solutions depart from it with increasing t. For systems of n equations, the situation is similar but more complicated. Equilibrium solutions are found by solving $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. We usually assume that $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$, so $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is the only equilibrium solution. An important question is whether other solutions approach this equilibrium solution or depart from it as t increases; in other words, is $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ asymptotically stable or unstable? Or are there still other possibilities?

The case n = 2 is particularly important and lends itself to visualization in the x_1x_2 -plane, called the **phase plane**. By evaluating $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ at a large number of points and plotting the resulting vectors, we obtain a direction field of tangent vectors to solutions of the system of differential equations. A qualitative understanding of the behavior of solutions can usually be gained from a direction field. More precise information results from including in the plot some solution curves, or trajectories. A plot that shows a representative sample of trajectories for a given system is called a **phase portrait**. A well-constructed phase portrait provides easily understood information about all solutions of a two-dimensional system in a single graphical display. Although creating quantitatively accurate phase portraits requires computer assistance, it is usually possible to sketch qualitatively accurate phase portraits by hand, as we demonstrate in Examples 2 and 3 below.

Our first task, however, is to show how to find solutions of systems such as Eq. (1). We start with a particularly simple example.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the general solution of the system

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

The most important feature of this system is that the coefficient matrix is a diagonal matrix. Thus, by writing the system in scalar form, we obtain

$$x_1' = 2x_1, \qquad x_2' = -3x_2.$$

Each of these equations involves only one of the unknown variables, so we can solve the two equations separately. In this way we find that

$$x_1 = c_1 e^{2t}, \qquad x_2 = c_2 e^{-3t},$$

where c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants. Then, by writing the solution in vector form, we have

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 e^{2t} \\ c_2 e^{-3t} \end{pmatrix} = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ e^{-3t} \end{pmatrix} = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-3t}. \tag{4}$$

Now we define the two solutions $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$ so that

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t}, \qquad \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-3t}, \tag{5}$$

The Wronskian of these solutions is

$$W[\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}](t) = \begin{vmatrix} e^{2t} & 0\\ 0 & e^{-3t} \end{vmatrix} = e^{-t}, \tag{6}$$

which is never zero. Therefore, $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$ form a fundamental set of solutions, and the general solution of Eq. (3) is given by Eq. (4).

In Example 1 we found two independent solutions of the given system (3) in the form of an exponential function multiplied by a vector. This was perhaps to be expected since we have found other linear equations with constant coefficients to have exponential solutions, and the unknown \mathbf{x} in the system (3) is a vector. So let us try to extend this idea to the general system (1) by seeking solutions of the form

$$\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\xi} e^{rt},\tag{7}$$

where the exponent r and the vector ξ are to be determined. Substituting from Eq. (7) for \mathbf{x} in the system (1) gives

$$r\xi e^{rt} = \mathbf{A}\xi e^{rt}.$$

Upon canceling the nonzero scalar factor e^{rt} , we obtain $\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\xi} = r\boldsymbol{\xi}$, or

$$(\mathbf{A} - r\mathbf{I})\boldsymbol{\xi} = \mathbf{0},\tag{8}$$

where **I** is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. Thus, to solve the system of differential equations (1), we must solve the system of algebraic equations (8). This latter problem is precisely the one that determines the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix **A**.

Therefore, the vector \mathbf{x} given by Eq. (7) is a solution of Eq. (1), provided that r is an eigenvalue and $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ an associated eigenvector of the coefficient matrix \mathbf{A} .

The following two examples are typical of 2×2 systems with eigenvalues that are real and different. In each example we will solve the system and construct a corresponding phase portrait. We will see that solutions have very distinct geometrical patterns depending on whether the eigenvalues have the same sign or different signs. Later in the section we return to a further discussion of the general $n \times n$ system.

EXAMPLE **2**

Consider the system

$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}.\tag{9}$$

Plot a direction field and determine the qualitative behavior of solutions. Then find the general solution and draw a phase portrait showing several trajectories.

A direction field for this system is shown in Figure 7.5.1. By following the arrows in this figure, you can see that a typical solution in the second quadrant eventually moves into the first or third quadrant, and likewise for a typical solution in the fourth quadrant. On the other hand, no solution leaves either the first or the third quadrant. Further, it appears that a typical solution departs from the neighborhood of the origin and ultimately has a slope of approximately 2.

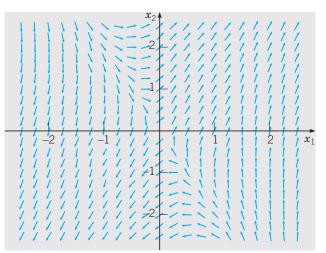


FIGURE 7.5.1 Direction field for the system (9).

To find solutions explicitly, we assume that $\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\xi} e^{rt}$ and substitute for \mathbf{x} in Eq. (9). We are led to the system of algebraic equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - r & 1 \\ 4 & 1 - r \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{10}$$

Equations (10) have a nontrivial solution if and only if the determinant of coefficients is zero. Thus, allowable values of r are found from the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 - r & 1 \\ 4 & 1 - r \end{vmatrix} = (1 - r)^2 - 4$$
$$= r^2 - 2r - 3 = (r - 3)(r + 1) = 0. \tag{11}$$

Equation (11) has the roots $r_1 = 3$ and $r_2 = -1$; these are the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix in Eq. (9). If r = 3, then the system (10) reduces to the single equation

$$-2\xi_1 + \xi_2 = 0. (12)$$

Thus $\xi_2 = 2\xi_1$, and the eigenvector corresponding to $r_1 = 3$ can be taken as

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{13}$$

Similarly, corresponding to $r_2 = -1$, we find that $\xi_2 = -2\xi_1$, so the eigenvector is

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{14}$$

The corresponding solutions of the differential equation are

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} e^{3t}, \qquad \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}. \tag{15}$$

The Wronskian of these solutions is

$$W[\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}](t) = \begin{vmatrix} e^{3t} & e^{-t} \\ 2e^{3t} & -2e^{-t} \end{vmatrix} = -4e^{2t},$$
(16)

which is never zero. Hence the solutions $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$ form a fundamental set, and the general solution of the system (9) is

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) + c_2 \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$$

$$= c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} e^{3t} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t},$$
(17)

where c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants.

To visualize the solution (17), it is helpful to consider its graph in the x_1x_2 -plane for various values of the constants c_1 and c_2 . We start with $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t)$ or, in scalar form,

$$x_1 = c_1 e^{3t}, \qquad x_2 = 2c_1 e^{3t}.$$

By eliminating t between these two equations, we see that this solution lies on the straight line $x_2 = 2x_1$; see Figure 7.5.2a. This is the line through the origin in the direction of the eigenvector $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$. If we look on the solution as the trajectory of a moving particle, then the particle is in the first quadrant when $c_1 > 0$ and in the third quadrant when $c_1 < 0$. In either case the particle departs from the origin as t increases. Next consider $\mathbf{x} = c_2 \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$, or

$$x_1 = c_2 e^{-t}, \qquad x_2 = -2c_2 e^{-t}.$$

This solution lies on the line $x_2 = -2x_1$, whose direction is determined by the eigenvector $\xi^{(2)}$. The solution is in the fourth quadrant when $c_2 > 0$ and in the second quadrant when $c_2 < 0$, as shown in Figure 7.5.2a. In both cases the particle moves toward the origin as t increases. The solution (17) is a combination of $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t)$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$. For large t the term $c_1\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t)$ is dominant and the term $c_2\mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$ becomes negligible. Thus all solutions for which $c_1 \neq 0$ are asymptotic to the line $x_2 = 2x_1$ as $t \to \infty$. Similarly, all solutions for which $c_2 \neq 0$ are asymptotic to the line $x_2 = -2x_1$ as $t \to -\infty$. A phase portrait for the system including the graphs of several solutions is shown in Figure 7.5.2a. The pattern of trajectories in this figure is typical of all 2×2 systems $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ for which the eigenvalues are real and of opposite signs. The origin is called a **saddle point** in this case. Saddle points are always unstable because almost all trajectories depart from them as t increases.

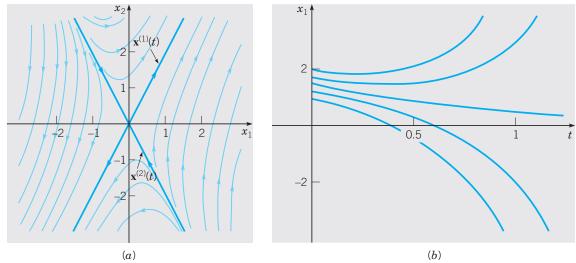


FIGURE 7.5.2 (a) A phase portrait for the system (9); the origin is a saddle point. (b) Typical plots of x_1 versus t for the system (9).

In the preceding paragraph, we have described how to draw by hand a qualitatively correct sketch of the trajectories of a system such as Eq. (9), once the eigenvalues and eigenvectors have been determined. However, to produce a detailed and accurate drawing, such as Figure 7.5.2a and other figures that appear later in this chapter, a computer is extremely helpful, if not indispensable.

As an alternative to Figure 7.5.2a, you can also plot x_1 or x_2 as a function of t; some typical plots of x_1 versus t are shown in Figure 7.5.2b, and those of x_2 versus t are similar. For certain initial conditions it follows that $c_1 = 0$ in Eq. (17), so that $x_1 = c_2 e^{-t}$ and $x_1 \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$. One such graph is shown in Figure 7.5.2b, corresponding to a trajectory that approaches the origin in Figure 7.5.2a. For most initial conditions, however, $c_1 \neq 0$ and x_1 is given by $x_1 = c_1 e^{3t} + c_2 e^{-t}$. Then the presence of the positive exponential term causes x_1 to grow exponentially in magnitude as t increases. Several graphs of this type are shown in Figure 7.5.2b, corresponding to trajectories that depart from the neighborhood of the origin in Figure 7.5.2a. It is important to understand the relation between parts (a) and (b) of Figure 7.5.2 and other similar figures that appear later, since you may want to visualize solutions either in the x_1x_2 -plane or as functions of the independent variable t.

EXAMPLE 3

Consider the system

$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}.\tag{18}$$

Draw a direction field for this system and find its general solution. Then plot a phase portrait showing several typical trajectories in the phase plane.

The direction field for the system (18) in Figure 7.5.3 shows clearly that all solutions approach the origin. To find the solutions, we assume that $\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\xi} e^{rt}$; then we obtain the algebraic system

$$\begin{pmatrix} -3-r & \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & -2-r \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{19}$$

The eigenvalues satisfy

$$(-3-r)(-2-r) - 2 = r^2 + 5r + 4$$

= $(r+1)(r+4) = 0$, (20)

so $r_1 = -1$ and $r_2 = -4$. For r = -1, Eq. (19) becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{21}$$

Hence $\xi_2 = \sqrt{2}\,\xi_1$, and the eigenvector $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ corresponding to the eigenvalue $r_1 = -1$ can be taken as

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{22}$$

Similarly, corresponding to the eigenvalue $r_2 = -4$ we have $\xi_1 = -\sqrt{2}\,\xi_2$, so the eigenvector is

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{23}$$

Thus a fundamental set of solutions of the system (18) is

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}, \qquad \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-4t}, \tag{24}$$

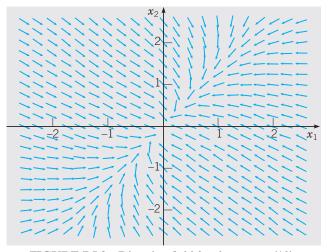


FIGURE 7.5.3 Direction field for the system (18).

and the general solution is

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) + c_2 \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} e^{-t} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-4t}.$$
 (25)

A phase portrait for the system (18) is constructed by drawing graphs of the solution (25) for several values of c_1 and c_2 , as shown in Figure 7.5.4a. The solution $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t)$ approaches the origin along the line $x_2 = \sqrt{2} x_1$, and the solution $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$ approaches the origin along the line $x_1 = -\sqrt{2} x_2$. The directions of these lines are determined by the eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$, respectively. In general, we have a combination of these two fundamental solutions. As $t \to \infty$, the solution $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t)$ is negligible compared to $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t)$. Thus, unless $c_1 = 0$, the solution (25) approaches the origin tangent to the line $x_2 = \sqrt{2}x_1$. The pattern of trajectories shown in Figure 7.5.4a is typical of all 2×2 systems $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$ for which the eigenvalues are real, different, and of the same sign. The origin is called a **node** for such a system. If the eigenvalues were positive rather than negative, then the trajectories would be similar but traversed in the outward direction. Nodes are asymptotically stable if the eigenvalues are negative and unstable if the eigenvalues are positive.

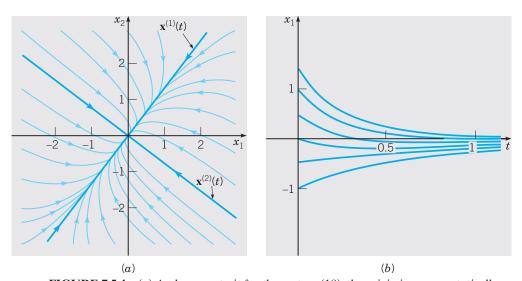


FIGURE 7.5.4 (a) A phase portrait for the system (18); the origin is an asynptotically stable node. (b) Typical plots of x_1 versus t for the system (18).

Although Figure 7.5.4a was computer-generated, a qualitatively correct sketch of the trajectories can be drawn quickly by hand on the basis of a knowledge of the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

Some typical plots of x_1 versus t are shown in Figure 7.5.4b. Observe that each of the graphs approaches the t-axis asymptotically as t increases, corresponding to a trajectory that approaches the origin in Figure 7.5.2a. The behavior of x_2 as a function of t is similar.

Examples 2 and 3 illustrate the two main cases for 2×2 systems having eigenvalues that are real and different. The eigenvalues have either opposite signs (Example 2) or the same sign (Example 3). The other possibility is that zero is an eigenvalue, but in this case it follows that det $\mathbf{A} = 0$, which violates the assumption made at the beginning of this section. However, see Problems 7 and 8.

Returning to the general system (1), we proceed as in the examples. To find solutions of the differential equation (1), we must find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of **A** from the associated algebraic system (8). The eigenvalues r_1, \ldots, r_n (which need not all be different) are roots of the *n*th degree polynomial equation

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - r\mathbf{I}) = 0. \tag{26}$$

The nature of the eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors determines the nature of the general solution of the system (1). If we assume that \mathbf{A} is a real-valued matrix, then we must consider the following possibilities for the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} :

- 1. All eigenvalues are real and different from each other.
- 2. Some eigenvalues occur in complex conjugate pairs.
- 3. Some eigenvalues, either real or complex, are repeated.

If the *n* eigenvalues are all real and different, as in the three preceding examples, then associated with each eigenvalue r_i is a real eigenvector $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(i)}$, and the *n* eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(n)}$ are linearly independent. The corresponding solutions of the differential system (1) are

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) = \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} e^{r_1 t}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(n)}(t) = \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(n)} e^{r_n t}. \tag{27}$$

To show that these solutions form a fundamental set, we evaluate their Wronskian:

$$W[\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}](t) = \begin{vmatrix} \xi_1^{(1)} e^{r_1 t} & \cdots & \xi_1^{(n)} e^{r_n t} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \xi_n^{(1)} e^{r_1 t} & \cdots & \xi_n^{(n)} e^{r_n t} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= e^{(r_1 + \dots + r_n)t} \begin{vmatrix} \xi_1^{(1)} & \cdots & \xi_1^{(n)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \xi_n^{(1)} & \cdots & \xi_n^{(n)} \end{vmatrix}.$$
 (28)

First, we observe that the exponential function is never zero. Next, since the eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(n)}$ are linearly independent, the determinant in the last term of Eq. (28) is nonzero. As a consequence, the Wronskian $W[\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}](t)$ is never zero; hence $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}$ form a fundamental set of solutions. Thus the general solution of Eq. (1) is

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} e^{r_1 t} + \dots + c_n \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(n)} e^{r_n t}. \tag{29}$$

If **A** is real and symmetric (a special case of Hermitian matrices), recall from Section 7.3 that all the eigenvalues r_1, \ldots, r_n must be real. Further, even if some of the eigenvalues are repeated, there is always a full set of n eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(n)}$ that are linearly independent (in fact, orthogonal). Hence the corresponding solutions of the differential system (1) given by Eq. (27) again form a fundamental set of solutions, and the general solution is again given by Eq. (29). The following example illustrates this case.

Find the general solution of

 $\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}.\tag{30}$

4

Observe that the coefficient matrix is real and symmetric. The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of this matrix were found in Example 5 of Section 7.3:

$$r_1 = 2, \qquad \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix};$$
 (31)

$$r_2 = -1, r_3 = -1; \xi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \xi^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (32)

Hence a fundamental set of solutions of Eq. (30) is

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t}, \qquad \mathbf{x}^{(2)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}, \qquad \mathbf{x}^{(3)}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}, \tag{33}$$

and the general solution is

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{2t} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t} + c_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t}. \tag{34}$$

This example illustrates the fact that even though an eigenvalue (r = -1) has algebraic multiplicity 2, it may still be possible to find two linearly independent eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(3)}$ and, as a consequence, to construct the general solution (34).

The behavior of the solution (34) depends critically on the initial conditions. For large t the first term on the right side of Eq. (34) is the dominant one; therefore, if $c_1 \neq 0$, all components of \mathbf{x} become unbounded as $t \to \infty$. On the other hand, for certain initial points c_1 will be zero. In this case, the solution involves only the negative exponential terms, and $\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{0}$ as $t \to \infty$. The initial points that cause c_1 to be zero are precisely those that lie in the plane determined by the eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(3)}$ corresponding to the two negative eigenvalues. Thus solutions that start in this plane approach the origin as $t \to \infty$, while all other solutions become unbounded.

If some of the eigenvalues occur in complex conjugate pairs, then there are still n linearly independent solutions of the form (27), provided that all the eigenvalues are different. Of course, the solutions arising from complex eigenvalues are complex-valued. However, as in Section 3.3, it is possible to obtain a full set of real-valued solutions. This is discussed in Section 7.6.

More serious difficulties can occur if an eigenvalue is repeated. In this event the number of corresponding linearly independent eigenvectors may be smaller than the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue. If so, the number of linearly independent solutions of the form ξe^{rt} will be smaller than n. To construct a fundamental set of solutions, it is then necessary to seek additional solutions of another form. The situation is somewhat analogous to that for an nth order linear equation with constant coefficients; a repeated root of the characteristic equation gave rise to solutions of the form e^{rt} , $t^2 e^{rt}$, $t^2 e^{rt}$, The case of repeated eigenvalues is treated in Section 7.8.

Finally, if A is complex, then complex eigenvalues need not occur in conjugate pairs, and the eigenvectors are normally complex-valued even though the associated eigenvalue may be real. The solutions of the differential equation (1) are still of the

form (27), provided that there are n linearly independent eigenvectors, but in general all the solutions are complex-valued.

PROBLEMS

In each of Problems 1 through 6:

- (a) Find the general solution of the given system of equations and describe the behavior of the solution as $t \to \infty$.
- (b) Draw a direction field and plot a few trajectories of the system.

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

$$2. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

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

$$4. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

$$5. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

$$6. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{5}{4} & \frac{3}{4} \\ \frac{3}{4} & \frac{5}{4} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

In each of Problems 7 and 8:

- (a) Find the general solution of the given system of equations.
- (b) Draw a direction field and a few of the trajectories. In each of these problems, the coefficient matrix has a zero eigenvalue. As a result, the pattern of trajectories is different from those in the examples in the text.

$$7. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 8 & -6 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

$$8. \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

In each of Problems 9 through 14, find the general solution of the given system of equations.

9.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

10.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2+i \\ -1 & -1-i \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

11.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

12.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

13.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -8 & -5 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

14.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

In each of Problems 15 through 18, solve the given initial value problem. Describe the behavior of the solution as $t \to \infty$.

15.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$
, $\mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ 16. $\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

16.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

17.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

17.
$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad 18. \ \mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 5 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

19. The system $t\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is analogous to the second order Euler equation (Section 5.4). Assuming that $\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\xi}t^r$, where $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is a constant vector, show that $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ and r must satisfy $(\mathbf{A} - r\mathbf{I})\boldsymbol{\xi} = \mathbf{0}$ in order to obtain nontrivial solutions of the given differential equation.

Referring to Problem 19, solve the given system of equations in each of Problems 20 through 23. Assume that t > 0.

20.
$$t\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$
 21. $t\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$ 22. $t\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 8 & -6 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$ 23. $t\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$

In each of Problems 24 through 27, the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix \mathbf{A} are given. Consider the corresponding system $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$.

- (a) Sketch a phase portrait of the system.
- (b) Sketch the trajectory passing through the initial point (2, 3).
- (c) For the trajectory in part (b), sketch the graphs of x_1 versus t and of x_2 versus t on the same set of axes.

24.
$$r_1 = -1$$
, $\xi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\2 \end{pmatrix}$; $r_2 = -2$, $\xi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\2 \end{pmatrix}$

25.
$$r_1 = 1$$
, $\xi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$; $r_2 = -2$, $\xi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

26.
$$r_1 = -1$$
, $\xi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$; $r_2 = 2$, $\xi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

27.
$$r_1 = 1$$
, $\xi^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$; $r_2 = 2$, $\xi^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$

- 28. Consider a 2 × 2 system $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$. If we assume that $r_1 \neq r_2$, the general solution is $\mathbf{x} = c_1 \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} e^{r_1 t} + c_2 \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)} e^{r_2 t}$, provided that $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ are linearly independent. In this problem we establish the linear independence of $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ by assuming that they are linearly dependent and then showing that this leads to a contradiction.
 - (a) Note that $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ satisfies the matrix equation $(\mathbf{A} r_1 \mathbf{I})\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} = \mathbf{0}$; similarly, note that $(\mathbf{A} r_2 \mathbf{I})\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)} = \mathbf{0}$.
 - (b) Show that $(\mathbf{A} r_2 \mathbf{I}) \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)} = (r_1 r_2) \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$.
 - (c) Suppose that $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ are linearly dependent. Then $c_1\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}+c_2\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}=\boldsymbol{0}$ and at least one of c_1 and c_2 (say c_1) is not zero. Show that $(\mathbf{A}-r_2\mathbf{I})(c_1\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}+c_2\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)})=\boldsymbol{0}$, and also show that $(\mathbf{A}-r_2\mathbf{I})(c_1\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}+c_2\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)})=c_1(r_1-r_2)\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$. Hence $c_1=0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(1)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(2)}$ are linearly independent.
 - (d) Modify the argument of part (c) if we assume that $c_2 \neq 0$.
 - (e) Carry out a similar argument for the case in which the order n is equal to 3; note that the procedure can be extended to an arbitrary value of n.
- 29. Consider the equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0, (i)$$

where a, b, and c are constants with $a \neq 0$. In Chapter 3 it was shown that the general solution depended on the roots of the characteristic equation

$$ar^2 + br + c = 0. (ii)$$

(a) Transform Eq. (i) into a system of first order equations by letting $x_1 = y, x_2 = y'$. Find the system of equations $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ satisfied by $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

- (b) Find the equation that determines the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix **A** in part (a). Note that this equation is just the characteristic equation (ii) of Eq. (i).
- 30. The two-tank system of Problem 22 in Section 7.1 leads to the initial value problem

$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{10} & \frac{3}{40} \\ \frac{1}{10} & -\frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}, \qquad \mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} -17 \\ -21 \end{pmatrix},$$

where x_1 and x_2 are the deviations of the salt levels Q_1 and Q_2 from their respective equilibria.

- (a) Find the solution of the given initial value problem.
- (b) Plot x_1 versus t and x_2 versus t on the same set of axes.
- (c) Find the smallest time T such that $|x_1(t)| \le 0.5$ and $|x_2(t)| \le 0.5$ for all $t \ge T$.
- 31. Consider the system

$$\mathbf{x}' = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -\alpha & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}.$$

- (a) Solve the system for $\alpha = 0.5$. What are the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix? Classify the equilibrium point at the origin as to type.
- (b) Solve the system for $\alpha = 2$. What are the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix? Classify the equilibrium point at the origin as to type.
- (c) In parts (a) and (b), solutions of the system exhibit two quite different types of behavior. Find the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix in terms of α , and determine the value of α between 0.5 and 2 where the transition from one type of behavior to the other occurs.

Electric Circuits. Problems 32 and 33 are concerned with the electric circuit described by the system of differential equations in Problem 21 of Section 7.1:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} I \\ V \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{R_1}{L} & -\frac{1}{L} \\ \frac{1}{C} & -\frac{1}{CR_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I \\ V \end{pmatrix}.$$
(i)

- 32. (a) Find the general solution of Eq. (i) if $R_1 = 1$ Ω , $R_2 = \frac{3}{5}$ Ω , L = 2 H, and $C = \frac{2}{3}$ F.
 - (b) Show that $I(t) \to 0$ and $V(t) \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$, regardless of the initial values I(0) and V(0).
- 33. Consider the preceding system of differential equations (i).
 - (a) Find a condition on R_1 , R_2 , C, and L that must be satisfied if the eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix are to be real and different.
 - (b) If the condition found in part (a) is satisfied, show that both eigenvalues are negative. Then show that $I(t) \to 0$ and $V(t) \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$, regardless of the initial conditions.
 - (c) If the condition found in part (a) is not satisfied, then the eigenvalues are either complex or repeated. Do you think that $I(t) \to 0$ and $V(t) \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$ in these cases as well?

Hint: In part (c), one approach is to change the system (i) into a single second order equation. We also discuss complex and repeated eigenvalues in Sections 7.6 and 7.8.