

# Ma 227 Review for Systems of DEs

## Matrices

### Basic Properties

#### Addition and subtraction:

Let  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ . Then

$$A \pm B = [a_{ij} \pm b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

**Example:**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 & 7 \\ -1 & -2 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} 1+6 & -2+4 & 3+7 \\ 0-1 & -1-2 & 6-6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 & 10 \\ -1 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Scalar Multiplication:

Let  $k$  be a scalar and  $A$  a matrix of real numbers of order  $m \times n$ . Then

$$kA = [k \cdot a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

**Example:**

$$5 \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & -8 & 4 & 22 \\ -7 & 1 & 0 & 6 \\ 8 & 3 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 0 & 25 & 35 \\ 10 & -40 & 20 & 110 \\ -35 & 5 & 0 & 30 \\ 40 & 15 & -15 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Some Properties of Addition and Scalar Multiplication

#### Theorem

Let  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  be conformable  $m \times n$  matrices whose entries are real numbers, and  $k$  and  $p$  arbitrary scalars. Then

1.  $A + B = B + A$ .
2.  $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$
3. There is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $0$  such that  $0 + A = A$  for each  $A$ .
4. For each  $A$  there is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $-A$  such that  $A + (-A) = 0$ .

5.  $k(A + B) = kA + kB$
6.  $(k + p)A = kA + pA$
7.  $(kp)A = k(pA)$ .
- (4) Note that  $(-1)A = [-a_{ij}]_{m \times n} \Rightarrow A + (-1)A = 0_{m \times n}$

Remark: We denote  $(-1)A$  by  $-A$ .

## The Transpose of a Matrix

If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix, the transpose of  $A$ , denoted  $A^T$ , is the  $n \times m$  matrix whose entry  $a_{st}$  is the same as the entry  $a_{ts}$  in the matrix  $A$ . Thus one gets the transpose of  $A$  by interchanging the rows and the columns of  $A$ .

**Example:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \\ 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 10 \\ -1 & -2 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Multiplication:

Definition. Let  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$  be matrices. Then  $AB$  is the  $m \times p$  matrix  $C$ , where

$$C = [c_{ij}]_{m \times p} = \left[ \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj} \right]_{m \times p}$$

Remark.  $AB \neq BA$  necessarily.

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 3} \times \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ -1 & -5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (1)(3) + (-1)(-1) + (0)(1) & (1)(4) + (-1)(-5) + (0)(2) \\ (4)(3) + (1)(-1) + (-1)(1) & (4)(4) + (1)(-5) + (-1)(2) \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 9 \\ 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \end{aligned}$$

The following occur often for matrices.

1.  $AB \neq BA$
2.  $AB = 0$  but neither  $A = 0$  or  $B = 0$

3.  $AB = AC$  but  $B \neq C$

**Theorem**

Assume that  $k$  is an arbitrary scalar, and that  $A, B, C$  and  $I$  are matrices of sizes such that the indicated operations can be performed. Then

1.  $IA = A, \quad BI = B$

2.  $A(BC) = (AB)C$

3.  $A(B + C) = AB + AC, \quad A(B - C) = AB - AC$

4.  $(B + C)A = BA + CA, \quad (B - C)A = BA - CA$

5.  $k(AB) = (kA)B = A(kB)$

6.  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ .

**Cramer’s Rule**

Cramer’s Rule: Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix,  $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$  and denote by  $A_{(j)}$  the  $n \times n$  matrix formed by replacing the elements  $a_{ij}$  of the  $j$ th column of  $A$  by the numbers  $k_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ . If  $|A| \neq 0$ , the system of  $n$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns,

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= k_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= k_2 \\ &\vdots = \vdots \\ &\vdots = \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n &= k_n \end{aligned}$$

has the unique solution

$$x_1 = \frac{\det A_{(1)}}{\det A}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det A_{(2)}}{\det A}, \dots, x_n = \frac{\det A_{(n)}}{\det A}$$

Example. Solve

$$\begin{aligned} x + 3y - 2z &= 1 \\ 4x - 2y + z &= -15 \\ 3x + 4y - z &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

by Cramer's Rule

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -25$$

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 \\ -15 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix}}{-25} = -\frac{14}{5}, \quad y = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 4 & -15 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix}}{-25} = \frac{19}{5}, \quad z = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 & -15 \\ 3 & 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix}}{-25} = \frac{19}{5}$$

## Systems of Equations: Elimination Using Matrices

### Elementary Row Operations On Matrices I

#### Equivalent Systems

Two linear systems are **equivalent** if they have the same solutions.

#### Three Elementary Operations

Three basic elementary operations are used to transform systems to equivalent systems. These are:

1. Interchanging the order of the equations in the system.
2. Multiplying any equation by a nonzero constant.
3. Replacing any equation in the system by its sum with a nonzero constant multiple of any other equation in the system (elimination step).

#### Theorem:

Suppose that an elementary row operation is performed on a system of linear equations. Then the resulting system has the same set of solutions as the original, so the two systems are equivalent.

Operating on the rows of a matrix is equivalent to operating on equations. The row operations that are allowed are the same as the row operations on linear systems of equations:

1. Interchanging the rows.
2. Multiplying any row by a nonzero constant.
3. Replacing any row by its sum with a nonzero constant multiple of any other row. (Add a multiple of one row to a different row.)

### Gaussian Elimination

Definition: A matrix is said to be in row-echelon form (and will be called a row-echelon matrix) if it satisfies the following three conditions:

1. All zero rows (consisting entirely of zeroes) are at the bottom.

- The first nonzero entry from the left in each nonzero row is a 1, called the leading 1 for that row.
- Each leading 1 is to the right of all leading 1's in the rows above it.

Definition: A row-echelon matrix is said to be in reduced row-echelon form (and will be called a reduced row-echelon matrix) if it satisfies the following condition:

- Each leading 1 is the only nonzero entry in its column.

**Example:**

Reduce the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & -7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

to row-reduced echelon form.

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & -7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(2)R_1+R_3; (2)R_1+R_4} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 4 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(-1)R_1; (-1)R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(-1)R_3+R_4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(-1)R_2+R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example:**

Solve the system  $AX = C$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & -7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

From the previous example

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & -7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ row echelon form: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus the solution is:  $\{x_3 = 3x_4, x_1 = -2x_4 - 4, x_2 = 4x_4 + 8, x_4 = x_4\}$

## Inverse of a Matrix

Definition: If  $A$  is a square  $n \times n$  matrix, a matrix  $A^{-1}$  is called the inverse of  $A$  if and only if

$$AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$$

A matrix  $A$  that has an inverse is called an invertible or nonsingular matrix.

**Example:**

Find  $A^{-1}$  for  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . We form  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(-2)R_2+R_1; (-1)R_2+R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(-1)R_1+R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(4)R_1+R_2; (-\frac{1}{2})R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 11 & 4 & -7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(-3)R_3+R_1; (-11)R_3+R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{11}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(-1)R_1; R_2 \leftrightarrow R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{11}{2} \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Thus } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{11}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Eigenvalues

Definition: The values of  $\lambda$  such that  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  are called eigenvalues. The vector  $X$  corresponding to an eigenvalue is called an eigenvector of the matrix  $A$ .

Example. Find all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -2 + \lambda + 2\lambda^2 - \lambda^3 \\ &= -\lambda^2(\lambda - 2) + (\lambda - 2) \\ &= (1 - \lambda^2)(\lambda - 2) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \Rightarrow$  eigenvalues  $\lambda = -1, 1, 2$ .

$(A - \lambda I)X = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - \lambda)x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + (2 - \lambda)x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \\ 0x_1 + x_2 + (-1 - \lambda)x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\lambda = -1$

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \\ 0x_1 + x_2 + 0x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $x_2 = 0, x_1 = x_3$  or  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow -1$ . Similarly,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ eigenvectors: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 2, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow -1, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

## Matrix Methods for Linear Systems of Differential Equations

## Linear Systems in Normal Form

A system of  $n$  linear differential equations is in normal form if it is expressed as

$$x'(t) = A(t)x(t) + f(t)$$

where  $x(t)$  and  $f(t)$  are  $n \times 1$  column vectors and  $A(t) = [a_{ij}(t)]_{n \times n}$ .

A system is called homogeneous if  $f(t) = 0$ ; otherwise it is called nonhomogeneous. When the elements of  $A$  are constants, the system is said to have constant coefficients.

### Example:

Express the equation

$$y''' - 6y'' + 11y' - 6ty = \cos t$$

in normal form

$$x'(t) = A(t)x(t) + f(t)$$

Solution: Defining

$$x_1 = y, x_2 = y', x_3 = y''$$

we have

$$x_1' = x_2$$

$$x_2' = x_3$$

$$x_3' = 6tx_1 - 11x_2 + 6x_3 + \cos t$$

Thus

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 6t & -11 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \cos t \end{bmatrix}$$

## Solving Normal Systems

1. To determine a general solution to the  $n \times n$  homogeneous system  $x' = Ax$  :
  - a. Find a fundamental solution set  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  that consists of  $n$  linearly independent solutions to the homogeneous equation.
  - b. Form the linear combination

$$x = Xc = c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$$

where  $c = \text{col}(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  is any constant vector and  $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is the fundamental matrix, to obtain a general solution.

### Theorem

Suppose the  $n \times n$  constant matrix  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$ . Let  $r_i$  be the eigenvalue corresponding to the  $u_i$ . Then

$$\{e^{r_1 t} u_1, e^{r_2 t} u_2, \dots, e^{r_n t} u_n\}$$

is a fundamental solution set on  $(-\infty, \infty)$  for the homogeneous system  $x' = Ax$ . Hence the general solution of  $x' = Ax$  is

$$x(t) = c_1 e^{r_1 t} u_1 + \dots + c_n e^{r_n t} u_n$$

where  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are arbitrary constants.

### Example

Find a general solution of

$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{eigenvectors: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 1, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 4$$

$$\text{Thus } x(t) = c_1 e^t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{4t} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus the solution is

$$x_1(t) = -c_1 e^t - 4c_2 e^{4t}$$

$$x_2(t) = c_1 e^t + c_2 e^{4t}$$

### Example:

Find a fundamental matrix for the system

$$x'(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} x(t)$$

**Solution:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \text{eigenvectors: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow -1, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 2, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 7,$$

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 3$$

Hence the four linearly independent solutions are

$$e^{-t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, e^{2t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, e^{7t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore a fundamental matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & e^{2t} & -e^{7t} & e^{3t} \\ -3e^{-t} & 0 & e^{7t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2e^{7t} & e^{3t} \\ 0 & 0 & 8e^{7t} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example:**

Solve the initial value problem

$$x'(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} x(t)$$

$$x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We know from above that the solution general solution to the system is

$$x(t) = c_1 e^{-t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{2t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 e^{7t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} + c_4 e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^{-t} + c_2 e^{2t} - c_3 e^{7t} + c_4 e^{3t} \\ -3c_1 e^{-t} + c_3 e^{7t} \\ 2c_3 e^{7t} + c_4 e^{3t} \\ 8c_3 e^{7t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then  $x(0) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 + c_2 - c_3 + c_4 \\ -3c_1 + c_3 \\ 2c_3 + c_4 \\ 8c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Therefore we must solve the system

$$c_1 + c_2 - c_3 + c_4 = 1$$

$$-3c_1 + c_3 = -1$$

$$2c_3 + c_4 = 1$$

$$8c_3 = 0$$

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3}e^{-t} - \frac{1}{3}e^{2t} + e^{3t} \\ -e^{-t} \\ e^{3t} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Complex Eigenvalues

Consider

$$x'(t) = Ax(t) \quad (*)$$

in the case where  $A$  is a real matrix and the eigenvalues are complex. Denoting the eigenvalues by  $\alpha \pm i\beta$ , let  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{a} + i\mathbf{b}$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are real vectors, be an eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\alpha + i\beta$ . Then

$$\mathbf{x}_1(t) = e^{\alpha t}(\cos \beta t \mathbf{a} - \sin \beta t \mathbf{b})$$

$$\mathbf{x}_2(t) = e^{\alpha t}(\sin \beta t \mathbf{a} + \cos \beta t \mathbf{b})$$

are two real linearly independent solutions of the system (\*).

Find the general solution of

$$x'(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} x(t)$$

Solution: This is problem 1 on page 573 of our DEs text and was assigned for homework.

Eigenvalues:

$$\det(A - rI) = \begin{vmatrix} 2-r & -4 \\ 2 & -2-r \end{vmatrix} = r^2 + 4 = 0 \Rightarrow r = \pm 2i = \alpha \pm i\beta, \text{ so } \alpha = 0, \beta = 2$$

Eigenvectors:

$$r = 2i :$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-2i & -4 \\ 2 & -2-2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-2i & -4 & 0 \\ 2 & -2-2i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$R_1$  says  $(2-2i)u_1 = 4u_2 \Rightarrow u_2 = \left(\frac{2-2i}{4}\right)u_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2}\right)u_1$ . Let  $u_1 = s$ ;

$$\text{then } \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} s \\ \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2}\right)s \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} + is \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Let } s = 2 :$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{a} + i\vec{b}.$$

So the general solution is

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}(t) &= c_1 \left\{ e^{0t} \cos 2t \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - e^{0t} \sin 2t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} + c_2 \left\{ e^{0t} \sin 2t \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + e^{0t} \cos 2t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \\ &= c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cos 2t \\ \cos 2t + \sin 2t \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \sin 2t \\ \sin 2t - \cos 2t \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

## Nonhomogeneous Systems

### Undetermined Coefficients

Consider the nonhomogeneous constant coefficient system

$$x'(t) = Ax(t) + f(t)$$

Find the general solution of

$$x'(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 2e^t \\ 4e^t \\ -2e^t \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution:

We first find the homogeneous solution.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ eigenvectors: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow -3, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 3$$

Since these eigenvectors are linearly independent, then

$$x_h(t) = c_1 e^{-3t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We seek a particular solution of the form

$$x_p(t) = e^t \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} x_p'(t) &= e^t \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = A x_p(t) = e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2e^t \\ 4e^t \\ -2e^t \end{bmatrix} \\ &= e^t \left( \begin{bmatrix} a_1 - 2a_2 + 2a_3 \\ -2a_1 + a_2 + 2a_3 \\ 2a_1 + 2a_2 + a_3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= a_1 - 2a_2 + 2a_3 + 2 \\ a_2 &= -2a_1 + a_2 + 2a_3 + 4 \\ a_3 &= 2a_1 + 2a_2 + a_3 - 2 \end{aligned}$$

, Solution is:  $\{a_2 = 0, a_1 = 1, a_3 = -1\}$

Therefore

$$x_p(t) = e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$x(t) = x_h(t) + x_p(t) = c_1 e^{-3t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: the Method of Undetermined Coefficients works only for constant coefficient systems.

## The Matrix Exponential Function

Definition: Let  $A$  be a constant  $n \times n$  matrix. Then we define

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

This is an  $n \times n$  matrix.

Remark: If  $D$  is a diagonal matrix, then the computation of  $e^{Dt}$  is straightforward.

**Example**

Let  $D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then

$$D^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D^3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \dots \quad D^n = \begin{bmatrix} (-1)^n & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore

$$e^{Dt} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} D^n \frac{t^n}{n!} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{t^n}{n!} & 0 \\ 0 & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n \frac{t^n}{n!} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

In general if  $D$  is an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix with  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  down its main diagonal, then  $e^{Dt}$  is the diagonal matrix with  $e^{r_1 t}, e^{r_2 t}, \dots, e^{r_n t}$  down its main diagonal.

In general it is not easy to calculate  $e^{At}$  for any matrix  $A$ .

Remark: In one case it is relatively easy to find  $e^{At}$ . It can be shown that if a matrix  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors, then  $P^{-1}AP$  is a diagonal matrix, where  $P$  is formed from the  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A$ . Thus

$$P^{-1}AP = D \tag{*}$$

where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix. In fact,  $D$  has the eigenvalues of  $A$  along its diagonal. Now (\*) implies that when  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvalues we have

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{At} &= e^{PDP^{-1}t} = I + PDP^{-1}t + \frac{1}{2}(PDP^{-1}t)(PDP^{-1}t) + \dots \\
&= I + PDP^{-1}t + \frac{1}{2}(PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1})t^2 + \dots \\
&= I + PDP^{-1}t + \frac{1}{2}(PD^2P^{-1})t^2 + \dots \\
&= P\left(I + Dt + \frac{1}{2}(Dt)^2 + \dots\right)P^{-1} \\
&= Pe^{Dt}P^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

**Example:**

We saw above that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ , has eigenvectors:

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow -1, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 2, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 7, \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \leftrightarrow 3$$

Let

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{24} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{3} & -1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{8} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{4} \end{bmatrix} \text{ so}$$

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = D$$

Thus

$$e^{Dt} = e \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^t$$

$$e^{Dt} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{7t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{3t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$e^{At} = P e^{Dt} P^{-1} = P \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{7t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{3t} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{2t} & -\frac{1}{3}e^{-t} + \frac{1}{3}e^{2t} & -e^{2t} + e^{3t} & \frac{1}{24}e^{-t} + \frac{1}{3}e^{2t} - \frac{1}{8}e^{7t} - \frac{1}{4}e^{3t} \\ 0 & e^{-t} & 0 & -\frac{1}{8}e^{-t} + \frac{1}{8}e^{7t} \\ 0 & 0 & e^{3t} & \frac{1}{4}e^{7t} - \frac{1}{4}e^{3t} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{7t} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Calculating $e^{At}$ for Nilpotent Matrices

Definition: An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  matrix is nilpotent if for some positive integer  $k$

$$A^k = 0.$$

Since

$$e^{At} = I + At + A^2 \frac{t^2}{2!} + \dots + A^n \frac{t^n}{n!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A^n \frac{t^n}{n!}$$

we see that if  $A$  is nilpotent, then the infinite series has only a finite number of terms since  $A^k = A^{k+1} = \dots = 0$  and in this case

$$e^{At} = I + At + A^2 \frac{t^2}{2!} + \dots + A^{k-1} \frac{t^{k-1}}{(k-1)!}$$

This may be taken further. The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem says that a matrix satisfies its own characteristic equation, that is,  $p(A) = 0$ . Therefore, if the characteristic polynomial for  $A$  has the form  $p(r) = (-1)^n(r - r_1)^n$ , that is  $A$  has only one multiple eigenvalue  $r_1$ , then  $p(A) = (-1)^n(A - r_1I)^n = 0$ . Hence  $A - r_1I$  is nilpotent and

$$e^{At} = e^{(r_1I + A - r_1I)t} = e^{r_1It} e^{(A - r_1I)t} = e^{r_1t} \left[ I + (A - r_1I)t + \dots + (A - r_1I)^{n-1} \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right]$$

**Example** Find the fundamental matrix  $e^{At}$  for the system

$$x'(t) = Ax(t) \text{ where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution: The characteristic polynomial for  $A$  is

$$p(r) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2-r & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-r & 1 \\ -2 & -2 & -1-r \end{bmatrix} = -r^3 + 3r^2 - 3r + 1 = -(r-1)^3$$

Hence  $r = 1$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  with multiplicity 3. By the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem  $(A - I)^3 = 0$  and

$$e^{At} = e^t e^{(A-I)t} = e^t \left[ I + (A-I)t + (A-I)^2 \frac{t^2}{2!} \right]$$

$$A - I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } (A - I)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus

$$e^{At} = e^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + te^t \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^t + te^t & te^t & te^t \\ te^t & e^t + te^t & te^t \\ -2te^t & -2te^t & e^t - 2e^t \end{bmatrix}$$