# MATH 309: Homework #3 Solutions

Due on: May 1, 2017

## **Problem 1** $A \ 2 \times 2$ Homogeneous Equation with Complex Eigenvalues

Without using matrix exponentials, find a fundamental set of solutions for the system of equations

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{y} = A\vec{y}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2\\ -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

[Remember: the real part and the imaginary part of a solution is also a solution!]

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**Solution 1.** The eigenvalues of the matrix are  $3 \pm 2i$ , and the corresponding eigenvectors are  $\begin{pmatrix} \pm i \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . From this we have the two solutions

$$\vec{y}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{(3+2i)x}, \qquad \vec{y}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -i \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{(3-2i)x}.$$

However, these are complex solutions. To get a real solution, we can choose one of them and takes its real and imaginary parts. Note that

$$\vec{y}_{1} = \binom{i}{-1} e^{(3+2i)x} = \binom{i}{-1} e^{3x} e^{2ix} \\ = \binom{i}{-1} e^{3x} (\cos(2x) + i\sin(2x)) = \binom{-e^{3x}\sin(2x)}{-e^{3x}\cos(2x)} + i\binom{e^{3x}\cos(2x)}{-e^{3x}\sin(2x)}$$

Therefore we have that

$$\operatorname{Re}(\vec{y}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} -e^{3x}\sin(2x)\\ -e^{3x}\cos(2x) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \operatorname{Im}(\vec{y}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{3x}\cos(2x)\\ -e^{3x}\sin(2x) \end{pmatrix}$$

and these two real functions form a fundamental set of solutions.

#### **Problem 2** Stability of the Origin I

Consider the matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} c & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ . For each value of c, classify the stability of the critical point at the origin for the equation

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{y} = A\vec{y}.$$

**Solution 2.** We calculate tr(A) = c + 2 and det(A) = 2c - 1. As c ranges through all the real numbers, this parameterizes a straight line in the tr(A), det(A)-plane. The slope of the line is 2, and it passes through the point tr(A) = 0, det(A) = -5, so the equation of this line is

$$\det(A) = 2\mathrm{tr}(A) - 5.$$

This equation does not intersect with the critical curve  $\det(A) = \frac{1}{4}\operatorname{tr}(A)^2$ , and therefore the matrix A always has real values. Furthermore, by plotting the line in the  $\operatorname{tr}(A)$ ,  $\det(A)$ -plane we see that for our line of A's the origin is either a saddle point or an unstable node (ie source), and that the transition between these two occurs when our line crosses the  $\operatorname{tr}(A)$ -axis. This happens when  $\det(A) = 0$ , eg. c = 1/2, and therefore we have the following classification: the origin is a saddle point if c < 1/2, and an unstable node if c > 1/2.

#### **Problem 3** Stability of the Origin II

Consider the matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} c & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ . For each value of c, classify the stability of the critical point at the origin for the equation

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{y} = A\vec{y}.$$

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**Solution 3.** We calculate tr(A) = c + 2 and det(A) = 2c + 1. Again, as c ranges through all real numbers, this parameterizes a straight line in the tr(A), det(A)-plane. The slope of the line is 2, and it passes through the point tr(A) = 0, det(A) = -3, so the equation of this line is

$$\det(A) = 2\mathrm{tr}(A) - 3$$

This equation does intersect with the critical curve  $\det(A) = \frac{1}{4}\operatorname{tr}(A)^2$  when  $\operatorname{tr}(A)^2 - 8\operatorname{tr}(A) + 12 = 0$ . This occurs when  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = 2$  and  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = 6$ , corresponding to c = 0 and c = 4. Therefore during this time we are an unstable spiral. Before this, we pass through the  $\operatorname{tr}(A)$ -axis at c = -1/2, so we have the following classification: the origin is an unstable spiral if 0 < c < 4, an unstable node if -1/2 < c < 0 or c > 4 and a saddle if c < -1/2.

#### **Problem 4** Nonhomogeneous Equations I

Determine the solution of the initial value problem

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{y} = A\vec{y} + \vec{b}(x), \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3\\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{b}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{2x}\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{y}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Solution 4.** The eigenvalues of A are -2 and 4, so using our matrix exponential tricks we calculate a fundamental matrix:

$$\Phi(x) = \exp(Ax) = (A+2I)\frac{1}{4+2}e^{4x} + (A-4I)\frac{1}{-2-4}e^{-2x}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} (1/2)e^{4x} + (1/2)e^{-2x} & (1/2)e^{4x} - (1/2)e^{-2x} \\ (1/2)e^{4x} - (1/2)e^{-2x} & (1/2)e^{4x} + (1/2)e^{-2x} \end{pmatrix}$$

Furthermore since 2 is not an eigenvalue of the matrix, we may use the method of undetermined coefficients to find a solution. To do so, we propose a solution of the form  $\vec{y}_p = \vec{v}e^{2x}$ . Then we calculate

$$2\vec{v}e^{2x} = A\vec{v}e^{2x} + \binom{e^{2x}}{0}.$$

Dividing out by  $e^{2x}$  and simplifying, we obtain:

$$(A-2I)\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Multiplying both sides by the inverse of A - 2I, we obtain  $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/8 \\ -3/8 \end{pmatrix}$ . Therefore a particular solution is  $\vec{y}_p = \begin{pmatrix} -1/8 \\ -3/8 \end{pmatrix} e^{2x}$ . The general solution is therefore

$$\vec{y} = \vec{y}_p + \vec{y}_h = \begin{pmatrix} -1/8 \\ -3/8 \end{pmatrix} e^{2x} + \Phi(x)\vec{c}.$$

Now plugging in our initial condition, we obtain (using the fact that  $\Phi(0) = I$ )

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/8\\-3/8 \end{pmatrix} + I\vec{c}.$$

Therefore  $\vec{c} = \binom{9/8}{11/8}$ , and the solution of the IVP is

$$\vec{y} = \vec{y}_p + \vec{y}_h = \begin{pmatrix} -1/8 \\ -3/8 \end{pmatrix} e^{2x} + \Phi(x) \begin{pmatrix} 9/8 \\ 11/8 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## **Problem 5** Nonhomogeneous Equations II

Determine the solution of the initial value problem

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{y} = A\vec{y} + \vec{b}(x), \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3\\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{b}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{4x}\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{y}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Solution 5.** We determined the eigenvalues and found the fundamental matrix for this equation last time, so to start out we need to find a particular solution. The method of undetermined coefficients won't work here, since 4 is an eigenvalue of A. Therefore we should use something else, such as diagonalization. Since the eigenvalues of A are 4 and -2, our trick for finding eigenvectors for  $2 \times 2$  matrices gives us an eigenvector  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$  for eigenvalue 4 and an eigenvector -33 for eigenvalue -2. Therefore we should take  $P = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $N = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Then  $P^{-1} = \frac{1}{18} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ -3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ , and substituting  $\vec{y} = P\vec{z}$ , our system reduces to

$$\frac{d}{dx}\vec{z} = N\vec{z} + P^{-1}\bar{b}$$

Furthermore, we calculate  $P^{-1}\vec{b} = \frac{1}{18} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} e^{4x}$  and letting  $\vec{z} = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}$  the above reduces to the system of two ordinary equations

$$z_1' = 4z_1 + \frac{3}{18}e^{4x}, \quad z_2' = -2z_2 - \frac{3}{18}e^{4x}.$$

Using the method of integrating factors, we find solutions:

$$z_1 = \frac{3}{18}xe^{4x}, \quad z_2 = -\frac{1}{36}e^{4x}.$$

Then

$$\vec{y_p} = P\vec{z} = P\begin{pmatrix} 3x/18\\-1/36 \end{pmatrix} e^{4x} = \begin{pmatrix} x/2 + 1/12\\x/2 - 1/12 \end{pmatrix} e^{4x}.$$

Then using the value of  $\Phi$  from the last problem, the general solution is seen to be

$$\vec{y} = \vec{y}_p + \vec{y}_h = \begin{pmatrix} x/2 + 1/12 \\ x/2 - 1/12 \end{pmatrix} e^{4x} + \Phi(x)\vec{c}.$$

Plugging in our initial conditions, we obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/12\\-1/12 \end{pmatrix} + \vec{c},$$

and therefore  $\vec{c} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/12 \\ 13/12 \end{pmatrix}$ . The solution of the initial value problem is therefore

$$\vec{y} = \vec{y}_p + \vec{y}_h = \begin{pmatrix} x/2 + 1/12 \\ x/2 - 1/12 \end{pmatrix} e^{4x} + \Phi(x) \begin{pmatrix} -1/12 \\ 13/12 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### **Problem 6** Matrices with One Eigenvalue

Let A be a  $2 \times 2$  matrix, and suppose that A has exactly one eigenvalue  $\lambda$  with algebraic multiplicity 2. In this problem, we will show that

$$\exp(Ax) = Ie^{\lambda x} + (A - \lambda I)xe^{\lambda x} \tag{1}$$

- (a) Define the matrix  $N = (A \lambda I)$ . Show that  $N^2 = 0$ .
- (b) Show that since  $N^2 = 0$ , we have  $\exp(Nx) = I + Nx$
- (c) Complete the proof of Equation (1) by using Proposition (1) below.

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#### Solution 6.

(a) Since A has an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  with algebraic multiplicity 2, there are only two possible Jordan normal forms for A, namely  $J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$  or  $J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ . Furthermore, there exists some matrix P satisfying  $P^{-1}AP = J$ . It follows that

$$P^{-1}NP = P^{-1}(A - \lambda I)P = P^{-1}AP - P^{-1}(\lambda I)P = P^{-1}AP - \lambda P^{-1}IP = J - \lambda I$$

Note that  $J - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  or  $J - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . In either case  $(J - \lambda I)^2 = 0$ , and therefore

$$(P^{-1}NP)^2 = (J - \lambda I)^2 = 0.$$

However,  $(P^{-1}NP)^2 = P^{-1}N^2P$ , so this shows that  $P^{-1}N^2P = 0$ . Multiplying by P on the left and  $P^{-1}$  on the right, thish shows that  $N^2 = 0$ .

(b) By definition,

$$\exp(Nx) = I + Nx + \frac{1}{2}N^2x^2 + \frac{1}{3!}N^3x^3 + \dots = I + Nx + \frac{1}{2}0x^2 + \frac{1}{3!}0x^3 + \dots = I + NX.$$

(c) Since  $I\lambda$  and N commute and  $A = N + \lambda I$ , the Proposition below tells us that

$$\exp(Ax) = \exp(Nx + \lambda Ix) = \exp(Nx) \exp(\lambda Ix) = (I + Nx) \exp(\lambda x)I.$$

Then replacing N with its value  $A - \lambda I$  gives us the identity we wanted.

**Proposition 1.** Suppose that B, C are two  $n \times n$  matrices which commute, i.e AB = BA. Then

$$\exp(Ax + Bx) = \exp(Ax)\exp(Bx).$$