GIAN course: Singular optimal control

Slide collection 2

Basic facts on linear ODE and matrix exponential

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Linear ODE, existence and uniqueness of solutions

Linear initial value problem:

$$\dot{X}(t) = A(t) X(t) + F(t), \quad t \in [a, b], \qquad X(t_0) = X_0,$$

where $X(t), F(t) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, $A(t) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, and A, F are piecewise continuous [a, b].

Theorem: The initial value problem has a unique solution.

<u>Proof.</u> on the following slide.

Linear ODE, existence and uniqueness of solutions

The existence and uniqueness proof.

W.l.o.g. $t_0 = 0$. The function X solves the initial value problem

$$\dot{X}(t) = A(t)X(t) + F(t), \quad X(0) = X_0$$

iff

$$X(t) = \Psi(X)(t) := X_0 + \int_0^t A(s) X(s) + F(s) \, ds.$$

We show that the operator $X \mapsto \Psi(X)$ is a contraction with respect to the norm

 $|X| := \max_{t \in [a,b]} \|e^{-Lt}X(t)\|$, where $L := 2 \sup_{t \in [a,b]} \|A(t)\|$, $\|\cdot\|$ any submultiplicative norm.

Then the existence and uniqueness statement follows from the contraction mapping theorem. For two matrix functions X_1 , X_2 ,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\Psi(X_1)(t) - \Psi(X_2)(t)\| &= \|\int_0^t A(s)(X_1(s) - X_2(s)) \, ds\| \\ &\leq \int_0^t \frac{L}{2} e^{Ls} \, e^{-Ls} \|X_1(s) - X_2(s)\| \, ds \\ &\leq \frac{L}{2} \int_0^t e^{Ls} |X_1 - X_2| \, ds \\ &\leq \frac{L}{2} \left[e^{Ls}/L \right]_{s=0}^{s=t} |X_1 - X_2| \leq \frac{1}{2} e^{Lt} |X_1 - X_2| \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying the latter inequality with e^{-Lt} and maximizing yields

$$|\Psi(X_1) - \Psi(X_2)| \le \frac{1}{2} |X_1 - X_2|$$

Fundamental solution, transition map, variation of parameters formula.

The unique solution $\Phi : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ of

 $\dot{\Phi}(t) = A(t) \Phi(t), \qquad \Phi(t_0) = I \qquad (\text{identity matrix})$

is called the **fundamental solution** at t_0 . $\Phi(t)$ is invertible for all t. Suppose not. Then $y(t) := \Phi(t)z = 0$ for some $z \in \mathbb{C}^n \setminus \{0\}$ and some t. The function y satisfies $\dot{y} = Ay$, y(t) = 0. By uniqueness, $y \equiv 0$. In particular $0 = y(t_0) = \Phi(t_0)z = z$, contradiction.

Define the **transition map** by

$$\Phi(t,s) := \Phi(t)\Phi^{-1}(s), \qquad s,t \in [a,b].$$

This map does not depend on t_0 . Then the solution of

$$\dot{X}(t) = A(t)X(t) + F(t), \quad t \in [a, b], \qquad X(t_0) = X_0, \quad (*)$$

is given by

$$X(t) = \Phi(t) \left(X_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(s)^{-1} F(s) \, ds \right)$$

= $\Phi(t, t_0) X_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, s) F(s) \, ds.$

<u>Proof.</u> The ansatz $X(t) = \Phi(t) C(t)$ for the solution of (*) yields

$$\dot{C}(t) = \Phi(t)^{-1} F(t), \qquad C(t_0) = X_0. \qquad \Rightarrow \quad C(t) = X_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(s)^{-1} F(s), ds.$$

Linear time invariant ODE and matrix exponential

The unique solution of

 $\dot{\Phi}(t) = A \Phi(t), \qquad \Phi(0) = I \qquad (A \text{ constant})$

is given by the matrix exponential

$$\Phi(t) = e^{At} := \exp(At) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(At)^k}{k!} = I + At + \frac{(At)^2}{2} + \frac{(At)^3}{6} + \dots$$

The solution of

$$\dot{X}(t) = A X(t) + F(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}, \qquad X(0) = X_0, \quad (*)$$

is given by

$$X(t) = e^{At} \left(X_0 + \int_0^t e^{-As} F(s) \, ds \right) = e^{At} X_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} F(s) \, ds.$$

More generally, for any $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, the solution of (*) satisfies

$$X(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} \left(X(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t_0-s)} F(s) \, ds \right) = e^{A(t-t_0)} X(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-s)} F(s) \, ds.$$

Matrix exponential of commuting matrices

Proposition. Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}, t \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$AB = BA \quad \Rightarrow \quad e^{(A+B)t} = e^{At} e^{Bt} = e^{Bt} e^{At}.$$

<u>Proof.</u> From AB = BA it follows that $A^kB = BA^k$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, whence $e^{At}B = Be^{At}$. Let $X(t) = e^{At}e^{Bt}$. Then X(0) = I ,and by the product rule

$$\dot{X}(t) = A e^{At} e^{Bt} + e^{At} B e^{Bt} = A e^{At} e^{Bt} + B e^{At} e^{Bt} = (A+B) X(t).$$

By uniqueness of the solution of linear initial value problems: $X(t) = e^{(A+B)t}$.

<u>Remark.</u> If A and B do not commute,

$$e^{At}e^{Bt} = e^{Z(t)}, \quad Z(t) = (A+B)t + (AB-BA)\frac{t^2}{2} + \text{infinite series of commutators.}$$

(Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula)

The case of diagonalizable matrix

Proposition. Suppose that $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ has a basis $V = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$ of eigenvectors s.t. $Av_k = \lambda_k v_k.$ (*)

Then

$$e^{At} = V \operatorname{diag}(e^{\lambda_1 t}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n t}) V^{-1} = \sum_{k=1}^n e^{\lambda_k t} v_k w_k^{\top}, \quad \text{where } V^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ w_n^{\top} \end{bmatrix}.$$

<u>Remark.</u> The row vectors w_k^{\top} are the left eigenvectors $w_k^{\top}A = \lambda_k w_k^{\top}$. The matrices $P_k = v_k w_k^{\top} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are called spectral projectors.

Proof. The relations (*) can be written as

 $AV = V\Lambda$, where $\Lambda := \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$.

Since V is nonsingular: $A = V \wedge V^{-1}$. Furthermore, we have

$$e^{\Lambda t} = \operatorname{diag}(e^{\lambda_1 t}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n t}).$$

Let $X(t) := Ve^{\Lambda t}V^{-1}$. Then X(0) = I and

$$\dot{X}(t) = V \wedge e^{\wedge t} V^{-1} = V \wedge V^{-1} V e^{\wedge t} V^{-1} = A X(t).$$

By uniqueness: $X(t) = e^{At}$.

The case $\lambda I + N$, N nilpotent

Let $N \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be nilpotent of index ν , i.e. $N^{\nu-1} \neq 0 = N^{\nu}$. Then for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$e^{(\lambda I+N)t} = e^{\lambda t} \left(I + Nt + N^2 \frac{t^2}{2} + N^3 \frac{t^3}{3!} + \dots + N^{\nu-1} \frac{t^{\nu-1}}{(\nu-1)!} \right) \qquad (*)$$

<u>Proof.</u> Let X(t) denote the right hand side of (*). Verify that X(0) = I, $\dot{X} = AX$.

Corollary. For a Jordan block,

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \\ & & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad e^{Jt} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t & \frac{t^2}{2} & \dots & & \frac{t^{\ell-1}}{(\ell-1)!} \\ & 1 & t & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & 1 & t \\ & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The case of a 2×2 matrix

For $A \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ with distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$e^{At} = e^{\lambda_1 t} \frac{A - \lambda_2 I}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} + e^{\lambda_2 t} \frac{A - \lambda_1 I}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_2 e^{\lambda_1 t} - \lambda_1 e^{\lambda_2 t}}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} I + \frac{e^{\lambda_1 t} - e^{\lambda_1 t}}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} A.$$

Proof. Diagonalization or use methods explained later on.

For $A \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ with only one eigenvalue λ ,

$$e^{At} = e^{\lambda t} \left(I + \left(A - \lambda I \right) t \right).$$

<u>Proof.</u> $A - \lambda I$ is nilpotent.

Real 2×2 **Example.** Let $\alpha, \omega \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & -\omega \\ \omega & \alpha \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad e^{At} = \underbrace{e^{\alpha t} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\omega t) & -\sin(\omega t) \\ \sin(\omega t) & \cos(\omega t) \end{bmatrix}}_{=:X(t)}$$

<u>Proof.</u> Verify, that X(0) = I, $\dot{X}(t) = AX(t)$.

The general real 2×2 case. Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}.$$

The eigenvalues of A are the zeros of its characteristic polynomial

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

i.e.

$$\lambda_{\pm} = \frac{(a+b) \pm \sqrt{disc}}{2}, \qquad disc := (a-d)^2 + 4bc.$$

Define $\omega = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{|disc|}$. Then

if disc > 0 (real simple eigenvalues)

$$e^{At} = e^{\frac{(a+d)t}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \cosh(\omega t) + \frac{a-d}{2} \frac{\sinh(\omega t)}{\omega} & b \frac{\sinh(\omega t)}{\omega} \\ c \frac{\sinh(\omega t)}{\omega} & \cosh(\omega t) - \frac{a-d}{2} \frac{\sinh(\omega t)}{\omega} \end{bmatrix},$$

if disc < 0 (nonreal simple eigenvalues)

$$e^{At} = e^{\frac{(a+d)t}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\omega t) + \frac{a-d}{2} \frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\omega} & b \frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\omega} \\ c \frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\omega} & \cos(\omega t) - \frac{a-d}{2} \frac{\sin(\omega t)}{\omega} \end{bmatrix},$$

if disc = 0 (equal eigenvalues)

$$e^{At} = e^{\frac{(a+d)t}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{(a-d)t}{2} & bt\\ ct & 1 - \frac{(a-d)t}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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The scalar Riccati differential equation.

Suppose

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \qquad (a, b, c, d \text{ may be time dependent})$$

Set

$$s(t) := \frac{y(t)}{x(t)}$$
 (slope of the vector).

Then

$$\dot{s} = \frac{\dot{y}x - y\dot{x}}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{(cx + dy)x - y(ax + by)}{x^2}$$

$$= c + (d - a)\frac{y}{x} - b\frac{y^2}{x^2}$$

$$= c + (d - a)s - bs^2.$$

This is a quadratic ODE for s, called **Riccati ODE**.

Note that the solution may have finite escape time (x(t) may become 0 for some t).

The solution of the Riccati ODE can be found via the associated linear ODE.

The scalar time variant case

The solutions of the scalar homogeneous ODE

$$\dot{x}(t) = a(t) x(t)$$

satisfy

$$x(t) = x(t_0) e^{A(t)}$$
, where $A(t) = \int_{t_0}^t a(s) ds$.

<u>Proof.</u> Direct verification, since $\dot{A}(t) = a(t)$.

(Simplified) Gronwall inequality: Suppose

$$\dot{x}(t) \le a(t) x(t)$$

Then for $t \geq t_0$,

$$x(t) \leq x(t_0) e^{A(t)}.$$

Proof. We have

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(x(t)\,e^{-A(t)}\right) = \dot{x}(t)e^{-A(t)} - x(t)\,a(t)\,e^{-A(t)} \le 0$$

Thus

$$x(t) e^{-A(t)} \le x(t_0) e^{-A(t_0)} = x(t_0).$$

Digression: invariant subspaces

Let $A : \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{V}$ be a linear operator on the vector space \mathcal{V} . A subspace \mathcal{U} is said to be *A*-invariant if

 $A\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{U}.$

Examples. kernel and image of A are A-invariant:

 $\operatorname{Ker} A := \{ v \mid Av = 0 \}. \qquad A \operatorname{Ker} A \subset \operatorname{Ker} A$ $\operatorname{Im} A := \{ Av \mid v \in \mathcal{V} \}. \qquad A \operatorname{Im} A \subset \operatorname{Im} A.$

Suppose $U = [u_1, \ldots u_r]$ is a basis of the invariant subspace \mathcal{U} . Then

$$A u_k = \sum_{j=1}^r \ell_{jk} u_j = \sum_{j=1}^r u_j \ell_{jk} \qquad k = 1, \dots r,$$

where ℓ_{jk} are elements of the underlying field. Let $L = [\ell_{jk}]$. Then, in matrix notation,

$$AU = UL.$$

L is said to be the representation of A with respect to the basis U.

Invariant subspaces and linear ODE

Suppose

AU = UL where A, U, L are complex matrices.

Then for any $k = 1, 2, \ldots$,

$$A^k U = U L^k.$$

Summation yields

$$e^{At}U = U e^{Lt}.$$

Suppose $x_0 \in \text{Im } U$, i.e. $x_0 = U\xi$ for some ξ . Then

$$e^{At}x_0 = e^{At}U\xi = U e^{Lt}\xi \in \operatorname{Im} U$$

Thus:

if the solution to the homgeneous linear ODE $\dot{x} = Ax$ starts in an A-invariant subspace, then it stays in that subspace for all time.

Note: The 1-dimensional invariant subspaces of A are its eigenspaces.

In the sequel $\mathbb{K}[x]$ denotes the set of polynomials

$$p(x) = p_n x^n + p_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + p_1 x + p_0$$

with coefficients in the field \mathbb{K} . \mathcal{V} is a vector space over \mathbb{K} , and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$ is the set of linear operators $A : \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{V}$. If \mathcal{V} is finite dimensional A is identified with its matrix with respect to the standard basis. Definition:

$$p(A) = p_n A^n + p_{n-1} A^{n-1} + \ldots + p_1 A + p_0 I$$

Then

(1)
$$1(A) = I$$
, $x(A) = A$,
(2) $(p \pm q)(A) = p(A) \pm q(A)$, $(pq)(A) = p(A)q(A) = q(A)p(A)$,
(3) if $AB = BA$ then for any $p \in \mathbb{K}[X]$, Ker $p(A)$ and Im $p(A)$ are *B*-invariant.

 $\frac{\text{Proof of (3).}}{0 = p(A)v} \Rightarrow 0 = Bp(A)v = p(A)Bv. \qquad y = p(A)v \Rightarrow By = Bp(A)v = p(A)Bv.$

Definition: A nonempty subset $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathbb{K}[x]$ is called an **Ideal** if

(1) $p,q \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow p \pm q \in \mathcal{I}$, (2) $p \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow \alpha p \in \mathcal{I}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}[x]$.

Basic facts:

(a) Let \mathcal{I} be an ideal. Let $p \in \mathcal{I}$ be a polynomial of minimum degree. Then

$$\mathcal{I} = \mathbb{K}[x] \, p = \{ \, \alpha \, p \mid \alpha \in \mathbb{K}[x] \, \}.$$

(b) Let $\mathcal{I} = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{r} \alpha_k p_k \mid \alpha_k \in \mathbb{K}[x] \right\}$ be the ideal generated by $p_1, \ldots, p_r \in \mathbb{K}[x]$. Let $d \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ be a greatest common divisor of the polynomials p_k . Then

 $\mathcal{I} = \mathbb{K}[x] d$

In particular, there are polynomials α_k such that

$$d = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \alpha_k p_k. \qquad (\text{Bezout identity}) \qquad (*)$$

Proof. (a) A polynomial $p \in \mathcal{I}$ of mininum degree in \mathcal{I} divides any other polynomial $q \in \mathcal{I}$ since otherwise we could write $q = \alpha p + r$ with degree $(r) < \text{degree}(p), r \neq 0$. $\Rightarrow r = q - \alpha p \in \mathcal{I}$. Contradiction.

(b) By (a) a polynomial $d \in \mathcal{I}$ of minimum degree divides any polynomial in \mathcal{I} . In particular, it is a common divisor of the p_k . From (*) it follows that any common divisor of the p_k divides d.

Remark: The factors α_k in (*) can be computed by the Euclidean algorithm.

Kernel intersection Lemma: Let d be the greatest common divisor of $p, q \in \mathbb{K}[x]$. Then for $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$,

$$\operatorname{Ker} d(A) = \operatorname{Ker} p(A) \cap \operatorname{Ker} q(A).$$

<u>Proof.</u> There exist $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that $d = \alpha p + \beta q$ (Bezout-identity). Thus

$$d(A) = \alpha(A) p(A) + \beta(A) q(A).$$

Thus, p(A)v = q(A)v = 0 implies d(A)v = 0, whence Ker $p(A) \cap$ Ker $q(A) \subset$ Ker d(A). On the other hand let $\gamma d = p$. Then $\gamma(A) d(A) = p(A)$. So d(A)v = 0 implies p(A)v = 0, whence Ker $d(A) \subset$ Ker p(A).

Kernel decomposition theorem.

Let $p = \prod_{k=1}^{r} p_k$, where $p_1, \ldots p_r \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ are pairwise coprime. Then for $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$, (1) there exist $\pi_k \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that $v \in \operatorname{Ker} p_j(A)$ implies $\pi_k(A)v = \begin{cases} v & \text{if } j = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$, (2) $\operatorname{Ker} p(A) = \bigoplus_{k=1}^{r} \operatorname{Ker} p_k(A)$.

<u>Proof:</u> The polynomials $\ell_k = \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^r p_j$, $k = 1, \ldots, r$ have no common factor. Thus, there exist $f_k \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that

$$1 = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \alpha_k \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^{r} p_j.$$

It follows that for all $v \in \mathcal{V}$,

$$v = I v = \sum_{k} \pi_k(A) v. \qquad (*)$$

(1) Each π_k , $j \neq k$, contains the factor p_j . Thus $v \in \text{Ker } p_j(A)$ implies $\pi_k(A)v = 0$ for $j \neq k$, and then by (*), $v = \pi_j(A)v$.

(2) We have $p_k(A)\pi_k(A) = \alpha_k(A)p(A)$ Thus $v \in \text{Ker} p(A)$ implies $\pi_k(A)v \in \text{Ker} p_k(A)$.

Thus, Ker p(A) is the sum of the subspaces Ker $p_j(A)$. The sum is direct: applying $\pi_k(A)$ on the relation

$$0 = \sum_{j} v_j, \quad v_j \in \operatorname{Ker} p_j(A)$$

yields $v_k = 0$.

Kernel decomposition theorem.

Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$, where \mathcal{V} is vector space over an arbitrary field \mathbb{K} . Let $p = \prod_{k=1}^{r} p_k$, where $p_1, \ldots p_r \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ are pairwise coprime. (1) Then there exist $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that

$$1 = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \alpha_k \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^{r} p_j. \qquad (*)$$

(2) The operators $\pi_k(A)$ satisfy:

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(a)
$$I = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \pi_k(A)$$
, (b) $v \in \operatorname{Ker} p_k(A)$ implies $\pi_i(A)v = \begin{cases} v & \text{if } i = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$
3) $\operatorname{Ker} p(A) = \bigoplus_{k=1}^{r} \operatorname{Ker} p_k(A)$.

<u>Proof:</u> The polynomials $\ell_k = \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^r p_j$, k = 1, ..., r have no common factor. \Rightarrow (1). (2a) is immediate from (1). (2b). Each π_i , $i \neq k$, contains the factor p_k . Thus $v \in \text{Ker } p_k(A)$ implies $\pi_i(A)v = 0$ for $i \neq k$, and then by (2a), $v = \pi_k(A)v$. (3) We have $p_k(A)\pi_k(A) = \alpha_k(A)p(A)$. Thus, $v \in \text{Ker } p(A)$ implies $\pi_k(A)v \in \text{Ker } p_k(A)$. Thus, Ker p(A) is the sum of the subspaces $\text{Ker } p_j(A)$. The sum is direct: applying $\pi_k(A)$ on the relation $0 = \sum_i v_i$ with $v_i \in \text{Ker } p_i(A)$ yields $v_k = 0$.

Remarks on the polynomial identity

$$1 = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \alpha_k \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^{r} p_j.$$

(1) This identity is equivalent to the incomplete partial fraction expansion

$$\frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^r p_k} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{\alpha_k}{p_k}.$$

(2) If $p_k(x) = (x - \lambda_k)^{m_k}$, k = 1, ..., r with distinct $\lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\ell_k(x) = \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^r (x - \lambda_j)^{m_j - 1}$, and

$$\alpha_k(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m_k-1} \frac{1}{j!} \left(\frac{d^j}{dx^j} \left. \frac{1}{\ell_k(x)} \right|_{x=\lambda_k} \right) (x - \lambda_k)^j.$$
 (Taylor expansion of $1/\ell_k(x)$)

in particular deg $(\ell_k) \leq m_k - 1$, and

$$\alpha_k(x) \equiv const = 1 \left/ \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^r (\lambda_k - \lambda_j)^{m_j - 1} \quad \text{if } m_k = 1.$$

Proof. see Wikipedia (Partial Fraction Expansion)

Application of kernel decomposition theorem:

Solutions of homogeneous linear ODE of higher order with constant coefficients

Let $p(x) = x^n + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j = \prod_{k=1}^r (x - \lambda_k)^{m_k}$, where the $\lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$ are distinct.

All solutions of the scalar ODE

$$0 = p\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)y(t) = y^{(n)}(t) + p_{n-1}y^{(n-1)}(t) + \ldots + p_1\dot{y}(t) + p_0y(t).$$

are given by

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} q_k(t) e^{\lambda_k t}, \qquad q_k \text{ polynomial of degree} \le m_k - 1.$$
 (*)

<u>Proof.</u> By the kernel decomposition theorem, $\operatorname{Ker} p\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) = \bigoplus_{k=1}^{r} \operatorname{Ker} \left(\frac{d}{dt} - \lambda_{k}\right)^{m_{k}}$. Any differentiable function y_{k} can be written in the form $y_{k}(t) = q_{k}(t) e^{\lambda_{k} t}$. We have

$$\left(\frac{d}{dt}-\lambda_k\right)y_k(t)=\dot{q}_k(t)e^{\lambda_k t},\qquad\Rightarrow\qquad \left(\frac{d}{dt}-\lambda_k\right)^{m_k}y_k(t)=q_k^{(m_k)}(t)e^{\lambda_k t}.$$

Thus,

$$y_k \in \operatorname{Ker}\left(rac{d}{dt} - \lambda_k
ight)^{m_k} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad q_k^{(m_k)} \equiv 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad q_k \text{ is polynomial of degree} \leq m_k - 1.$$

Terminology: functions of the form (*) are called **Bohl functions**.

Suplement:

solution formula for inhomogeneous initial value problem of higher order

Let $\phi_0, \ldots, \phi_{n-1} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ be the solutions of the homogeneous initial value problem

$$\phi_k^{(n)}(t) + p_{n-1}\phi_k^{(n-1)}(t) + \ldots + p_1\dot{\phi}_k(t) + p_0\phi_k(t) = 0, \qquad \phi_k^{(j)}(0) = \delta_{jk}, \quad j = 0, \ldots, n-1$$

(Bohl functions). Then

$$y: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}, \qquad y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi_k(t-t_0) y_k + \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) ds$$

is the unique solution of the initial value problem

$$y^{(n)}(t) + p_{n-1} y^{(n-1)}(t) + \ldots + p_1 \dot{y}(t) + p_0 y(t) = f(t), \qquad y^{(k)}(t_0) = y_k.$$

Question: Is there a nice way for computing the functions ϕ_k ? **Answer:** Yes. Method will be shown after some remarks on the next slides.

Example to the solution formula

Consider the ODE of second order (harmonic oscillator):

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega^2 y(t) = f(t), \qquad \omega > 0.$$
 (*)

The functions

$$\phi_0(t) = \cos(\omega t), \qquad \phi_1(t) = \omega^{-1} \sin(\omega t)$$

solve the homogeneous ODE

$$\ddot{\phi}(t) + \omega^2 \,\phi(t) = 0$$

with initial conditions $\phi_k^{(j)} = \delta_{jk}$. Thus, the solutions of (*) are

$$y(t) = y(t_0) \cos(\omega (t - t_0)) + \dot{y}(t_0) \omega^{-1} \sin(\omega (t - t_0)) + \int_{t_0}^t \omega^{-1} \sin(\omega (t - s)) f(s) ds.$$

Remark on the integral part of the solution formula

For a cont. function g(t,s) which is continuously differentiable in t the following holds:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\int_{t_0}^t g(t,s)\,ds = g(t,t) + \int_{t_0}^t \frac{d}{dt}g(t,s)\,ds.$$

Thus,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds = \overbrace{\phi_{n-1}(t-t)}^{=0} f(t) + \int_{t_0}^t \dot{\phi}_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{t_0}^t \dot{\phi}_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

$$= \underbrace{\phi_{n-1}(t-t)}_{=0} f(t) + \int_{t_0}^t \ddot{\phi}_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n} \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}^{(n-1)}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

$$= \underbrace{\phi_{n-1}^{(n-1)}(t-t)}_{=1} f(t) + \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}^{(n)}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

Summing up:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} p_k \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \int_{t_0}^t \phi_{n-1}(t-s) f(s) \, ds = f(t) + \int_{t_0}^t \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ =0}}^n p_k \phi_{n-1}^{(k)}(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

The basis solutions ϕ_k can be computed in the following way.

Step 1. Perform partial fraction expansion

$$rac{1}{p(x)}=rac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^r(x-\lambda_k)^{m_k}}=\sum_{k=1}^r\sum_{j=1}^{m_k}rac{lpha_{kj}}{(x-\lambda_k)^j}.$$

Set

$$\phi_{n-1}(t) := \sum_{k=1}^{r} e^{\lambda_k t} \sum_{j=1}^{m_k} \alpha_{kj} \frac{t^{j-1}}{(j-1)!}.$$

Step 2. Set

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\phi_{n-2} & := & p_{n-1} \phi_{n-1} + \dot{\phi}_{n-1}, \\
\phi_{n-3} & := & p_{n-2} \phi_{n-1} + \dot{\phi}_{n-2}, \\
& & \vdots \\
\phi_0 & := & p_1 \phi_{n-1} + \dot{\phi}_1.
\end{array}$$

Then $p(\frac{d}{dt})\phi_k = 0$ and $\phi_k^{(j)}(0) = \delta_{jk}$.

<u>Proof.</u> The function ϕ_{n-1} defined in Step 1 solves the ODE by the kernel decomposition theorem. The conditions $\phi_{n-1}^{(j)}(0) = \delta_{j,n-1}$ can be verified by direct computation or by Laplace transformation. Obviously, the functions of Step 2 solve the ODE. The initial condition properties follow by differentiating $p(\frac{d}{dt})\phi_{n-1} = 0$ and setting t = 0.

Example to the solution formula method for ODE of higher order

Let

$$p(x) = x^3 + p_2 x^2 + p_1 x + p_0 = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)(x - \lambda_3), \qquad \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C} \text{ distinct.}$$

Partial fraction expansion yields

$$\frac{1}{p(x)} = \frac{a_1}{x - \lambda_1} + \frac{a_2}{x - \lambda_2} + \frac{a_3}{x - \lambda_3},$$

where

$$1/a_1 = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)(\lambda_1 - \lambda_3), \quad 1/a_2 = (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)(\lambda_2 - \lambda_3), \quad 1/a_3 = (\lambda_3 - \lambda_1)(\lambda_3 - \lambda_2).$$

Thus, the general solution of

$$y^{(3)} + p_2 \ddot{y} + p_1 \dot{y} + p_0 y = f$$

is

$$y(t) = \phi_0(t - t_0) y(t_0) + \phi_1(t - t_0) \dot{y}(t_0) + \phi_2(t - t_0) \ddot{y}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t \phi_2(t - s) f(s) ds,$$

re

where

$$\begin{split} \phi_{2}(t) &= a_{1} e^{\lambda_{1} t} + a_{2}, e^{\lambda_{2} t} + a_{3} e^{\lambda_{3} t} \\ &= \frac{e^{\lambda_{1} t}}{(\lambda_{1} - \lambda_{2})(\lambda_{1} - \lambda_{3})} + \frac{e^{\lambda_{2} t}}{(\lambda_{2} - \lambda_{1})(\lambda_{2} - \lambda_{3})} + \frac{e^{\lambda_{3} t}}{(\lambda_{3} - \lambda_{1})(\lambda_{3} - \lambda_{2})}, \\ \phi_{1}(t) &= p_{2} \phi_{2}(t) + \dot{\phi}_{2}(t), \\ \phi_{0}(t) &= p_{1} \phi_{2}(t) + \dot{\phi}_{1}(t). \end{split}$$

Matrix exponential and ODE of higher order

Proposition. Suppose $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ satisfies the polynomial identity

 $0=p(A)=A^n+p_{n-1}\,A^{n-1}+\ldots+p_1\,A+p_0\,I.\qquad (\text{We may have }N\neq n)$ Then

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi_k(t) A^k,$$

where the scalar functions $\phi_k : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ satisfy

$$p\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\phi_k=0, \qquad \phi_k^{(j)}(0)=\delta_{jk}, \qquad j,k=0,\ldots,n-1.$$

<u>Proof.</u> We have $\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)^k e^{At} = A^k e^{At}$. Thus, $p\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) e^{At} = p(A) e^{At} = 0$. Thus (by our result on ODE of higher order):

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi_k(t) Y_k$$
 with the matrices $Y_k = \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)^k e^{At} \bigg|_{t=0} = A^k.$

Corollary (Solution formula without matrix exponential).

$$\dot{x}(t) = A x(t) \quad \Rightarrow \quad x(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \phi_k(t-t_0) A^k x(t_0) \quad \text{and} \quad p\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) x(t) = 0.$$

Matrix exponential with respect to polynomial basis I

The theorem below generalizes the statement from the slide before.

Representation theorem. Suppose $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ satisfies the polynomial identity

$$0 = p(A) = A^{n} + p_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \ldots + p_1A + p_0I.$$
 (We may have $N \neq n$)

Let $\beta_0(x), \beta_1(x), \dots, \beta_{n-1}(x)$ be a basis of the set of polynomials of degree $\leq n-1$. Let $a_k, c_k, m_{ik} \in \mathbb{C}$ be coefficients such that (polynomial division)

$$x \beta_k(x) = a_k p(x) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m_{ik} \beta_i(x), \qquad k = 0, \dots, n-1,$$

and $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k \beta_k(x) = 1$. Then, $e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \psi_k(t) \beta_k(A),$ (*)

where the scalar functions ψ_k solve the initial value problem

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_0(t) \\ \psi_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{n-1}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} m_{00} & \dots & m_{0,n-1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ m_{n-1,0} & \dots & m_{n-1,n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_{=:M_{\beta}} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_0(t) \\ \psi_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{n-1}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \begin{bmatrix} \psi_0(0) \\ \psi_1(0) \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{n-1}(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof. Show that the right hand side of (*) solves the same initial value problem as e^{At} .

Matrix exponential with respect to polynomial basis II

Special cases of the representation theorem.

(1) For $\beta_k(x) = x^k$, k = 0, ..., n - 1, we have $x \beta_k(x) = \beta_{k+1}(x), \quad k = 0, ..., n - 2, \qquad x \beta_{n-1}(x) = x^n = p(x) - \sum_{i=0}^{i-1} p_i \beta_i(x).$ Thus, $M_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -p_0 \\ 1 & -p_1 \\ & \ddots & \vdots \\ & 1 & -p_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$ (companion matrix)

In this case the functions ψ_k equal the function ϕ_k from our considerations of ODE of higher order.

(2) Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be the zeros of p counting multiplicities. For the (Newton)basis

$$\beta_0(x) = 1, \quad \beta_1(x) = x - \lambda_1, \quad \beta_2 = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2), \ \dots, \ \beta_{n-1}(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} (x - \lambda_j)$$

we have $1 = \beta_0(x) = \beta_0(x) + \sum_{k \ge 1} 0 \beta_k(x) \Rightarrow \psi_0(0) = 1, \psi_k(0) = 0$ for $k \ge 1$, and

 $x \beta_k(x) = \beta_{k+1}(x) + \lambda_k \beta_k(x), \quad k = 0, \dots, n-2, \qquad x \beta_{n-1}(x) = p(x) + \lambda_n \beta_{n-1}(x).$ In this case

$$M_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & & \\ 1 & \lambda_{2} & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & 1 & \lambda_{n} \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{cases} \dot{\psi}_{0} = \lambda_{1} \psi_{0} \\ \dot{\psi}_{k} = \lambda_{k+1} \psi_{k} + \psi_{k-1}, \ k \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
 (Putzer algorithm)

Matrix exponential with respect to polynomial basis III

Example to the Putzer algorithm.

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ has minimal polynomial

$$\mu_A(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)^2, \quad \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2.$$

The associated Newton Basis is

$$\beta_0(x) = 1, \quad \beta_1(x) = (x - \lambda_1), \quad \beta_2(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2).$$

Thus,

$$e^{At} = \psi_0(t) I + \psi_1(t) (A - \lambda_1 I) + \psi_2(t) (A - \lambda_1 I) (A - \lambda_2 I),$$

where

$$\psi_0(0) = 1, \quad \dot{\psi}_0 = \lambda_1 \psi_0, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi_0(t) = e^{\lambda_1 t},$$

$$\psi_1(0) = 0, \quad \dot{\psi}_1 = \lambda_2 \psi_1 + \psi_0, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi_1(t) = \frac{e^{\lambda_1 t} - e^{\lambda_2 t}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2},$$

$$\psi_2(0) = 0, \quad \dot{\psi}_2 = \lambda_2 \psi_2 + \psi_1, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi_2(t) = \frac{e^{\lambda_1 t} - e^{\lambda_2 t}}{(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)^2} - \frac{e^{\lambda_2 t}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} t.$$

Polynomial identities, minimal polynomial, characteristic polynomial

Suppose the linear operator $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$ satisfies a **polynomial identity:**

$$p(A) = 0.$$

Then the Ideal $\mathcal{I}_A := \{ q \in \mathbb{K}[x] | q(A) = 0 \}$ contains a unique monic polynomial μ_A of minimum degree (the **minimal polynomial**). Thus q(A) = 0 iff $\mu_A | q$. Let

$$\mu_A = \prod_{k=1}^r f_k^{m_k}, \qquad f_k \text{ irreducible over } \mathbb{K}.$$

By the kernel decomposition theorem:

(1) $\mathcal{V} = \operatorname{Ker} \mu_A(A) = \bigoplus_{k=1}^r \operatorname{Ker} f_k^{m_k}(A),$

(2) there are $\pi_k \in \mathbb{K}[x]$ such that $\pi_k(A) : \mathcal{V} \to \text{Ker} f_k^{m_k}(A)$ are the associated projectors.

Furthermore, by the kernel intersection lemma and its proof (homework):

(3)
$$m \ge m_k \implies \operatorname{Ker} f_k^m(A) = \operatorname{Ker} f_k^{m_k}(A)$$

(4) q(A) is invertible and there is a polynomial ϕ with $q(A) = \phi(A)^{-1}$ iff $f_k \not| q$ for any k.

Cayley-Hamilton theorem: Let $\chi_A(x) := \det(x I - A)$ be the characteristic polynomial of $A \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$. Then $\chi_A(A) = 0$. Thus, $\mu_A | \chi_A$.

Digression: Proof of the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Let $A = [a_{ik}] = [a_1, \dots, a_n] \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$. Let $e_j \in \mathbb{K}^n$ be the *j*th canonical basis vector. Then $\sum_{j} \underbrace{\det(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, e_j, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)}_{=:a_{ij}^{\sharp}} = \det(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, \sum_{j} e_j a_{jk}, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)$ $= \det(A) \, \delta_{ik}.$

In matrix notation: $A^{\sharp}A = \det(A)I$, where $A^{\sharp} = [a_{ij}^{\sharp}]$ (matrix of cofactors). Replacing A by xI - A with $x \in \mathbb{K}$, we have

$$(xI-A)^{\sharp}(xI-A) = \det(xI-A)I = \left(\sum p_j x^j\right)I. \quad (*)$$

The entries of $(x I - A)^{\sharp}$ are polynomials of degree n - 1. Thus, $(x I - A)^{\sharp} = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} B_j x^j$. Equating coefficients of x^j in (*) we obtain

 $-B_0 A = p_0 I$, $B_{j-1} - B_j A = p_j I$ for j = 1, ..., n-1, $B_{n-1} = p_n I$.

Multiplying the *j*th equation with A^{j} gives

$$-B_0 A = p_0 I, \qquad B_{j-1} A^j - B_j A^{j+1} = p_j A^j \quad \text{for} \quad j = 1, \dots, n-1, \qquad B_{n-1} A^n = p_n A^n,$$

Summing up these equations we obtain

$$0 = -B_0 A + (B_0 A - B_1 A^2) + \ldots + (B_{n-2} A^{n-1} - B_{n-1} A^n) + B_{n-1} A^n = \sum p_j A^j.$$

2 Methods to compute the spectral projectors $\pi_k(A)$. Let

$$\mu_A = \prod_{k=1}^r f_k^{m_k}, \quad f_k \text{ irreducible over } \mathbb{K}, \qquad \ell_k = \frac{\mu_A}{f_k^{m_k}} = \prod_{j=1, j \neq k}^r f_j^{m_j}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, r.$$

Method 1 (already discussed). Incomplete partial fraction expansion:

$$\frac{1}{\mu_A} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{\alpha_k}{\ell_k} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \pi_k(A) = \alpha_k(A) \,\ell_k(A).$$

<u>Method 2.</u> Let $\sigma(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \ell_k(x)$. Then $\sigma(A)^{-1}$ exists and is a polynomial of A. We have

$$\pi_k(A) = \sigma(A)^{-1} \ell_k(A) \qquad (*)$$

<u>Proof.</u> The sum σ is not divisible by any f_j since $f_j|\ell_k$ for $j \neq k$ and $f_j \not|\ell_j$. Hence μ_A and σ have no common factor, and there exist polynomials α, β with

$$\alpha \sigma + \beta \mu_A = 1 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \alpha(A) \sigma(A) = I \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha(A) = \sigma(A)^{-1}$$

The matrices $\pi_k(A)$ of (*) satisfy $\sum \pi_k(A) = I$, $\pi_k(A)\pi_j(A) = \delta_{jk}I$, $f_k^{m_k}(A)\pi_k(A) = 0$. This yields a second proof of the kernel decomposition theorem.

The spectral decomposition theorem

Let $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$, where \mathcal{V} is a vector space over \mathbb{C} . Suppose

$$p(A) = 0,$$
 where $p(X) = \prod_{k=1}^{r} (x - \lambda_k)^{m_k}, \quad \lambda_k$ distinct.

Let $P_k := \pi_k(A) : \mathcal{V} \to \text{Ker} (A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k}$, k = 1, ..., r be the projectors for the decomp.

$$\mathcal{V} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^{r} \operatorname{Ker} (A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k}.$$

Furthermore, let $N_k := (A - \lambda_k I)P_k$. Then

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^{r} (\lambda_k P_k + N_k), \text{ and } N_k^{m_k} = 0.$$

i.e. N_k is nilpotent. All these operators commute with each other: $P_jP_k = P_kP_j = \delta_{jk}P_k$, $N_jP_k = P_kN_j = \delta_{jk}N_j$, $N_jN_k = N_kN_j$.

<u>Proof.</u> From $I = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \pi_k(A) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} P_k$ it follows that

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^{r} A P_k = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \lambda_k P_k + \underbrace{(A - \lambda_k I) P_k}_{N_k}$$

All operators commute because they are polynomials of A. We have $N_k^{m_k} = (A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k} P_k^{m_k} = (A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k} P_k = 0$, since P_k is a projector onto Ker $(A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k}$.

The spectral decomposition and the matrix exponential

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ have the spectral decomposition

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^{r} (\lambda_k P_k + N_k), \qquad N_k^{m_k - 1} \neq 0, \quad N_k^{m_k} = 0$$

Then

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=1}^{r} e^{\lambda_k t} \left(P_k + N_k t + \frac{(N_k t)^2}{2} + \frac{(N_k t)^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{(N_k t)^{m_k - 1}}{(m_k - 1)!} \right)$$
(*)

<u>Proof.</u> Let Y denote the right hand side of (*). Using the relations

$$P_j P_k = P_k P_j = \delta_{jk} P_k, \quad N_j P_k = P_k N_j = \delta_{jk} N_j, \quad N_j N_k = N_k N_j$$

it is easily verified that $\dot{Y} = AY$. Furthermore, Y(0) = I.

Corollary. All components of e^{At} are Bohl functions.

Spectral decomposition and block diagonalization

Let $V = [V_1, V_2, ..., V_r]$ where V_k is a matrix whose columns form a basis of Ker $(A - \lambda_k I)^{m_k}$. Then there are nilpotent matrices \hat{N}_k such that

 $A V_k = V_k (\lambda_k I + \hat{N}_k).$

Thus,

$$A = V \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 I + \hat{N}_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 I + \hat{N}_2 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_r I + \hat{N}_r \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^r V_k \left(\lambda_k I + \hat{N}_k \right) W_k^{\mathsf{T}} = \sum_{k=1}^r \lambda_k \underbrace{V_k W_k^{\mathsf{T}}}_{P_k} + \underbrace{V_k \hat{N}_k W_k^{\mathsf{T}}}_{N_k}, \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{bmatrix} W_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ W_2^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ W_r^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} = V^{-1}.$$

Furthermore,

$$e^{At} = V \begin{bmatrix} e^{(\lambda_1 I + \hat{N}_1)t} & & \\ & e^{(\lambda_2 I + \hat{N}_2)t} & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & e^{(\lambda_r I + \hat{N}_r)t} \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}, \qquad e^{(\lambda_k I + \hat{N}_k)t} = e^{\lambda_k t} \sum_{j=0}^{m_k - 1} \frac{t^j}{j!} \hat{N}_k^j.$$

The spectral decomposition and the resolvent $(x I - A)^{-1}$

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ have the spectral decomposition

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^{r} (\lambda_k P_k + N_k), \qquad N_k^{m_k - 1} \neq 0, \quad N_k^{m_k} = 0.$$

Then, as already mentioned,

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=1}^{r} e^{\lambda_k t} \left(P_k + N_k t + \frac{(N_k t)^2}{2} + \frac{(N_k t)^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{(N_k t)^{m_k - 1}}{(m_k - 1)!} \right).$$

Using the properties of the spectral factors it can be shown that for any $x \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$(x I - A)^{-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \left(\frac{P_k}{x - \lambda_k} + \frac{N_k}{(x - \lambda_k)^2} + \frac{N_k^2}{(x - \lambda_k)^3} + \dots + \frac{N_k^{m_k - 1}}{(x - \lambda_k)^{m_k}} \right),$$

(this is a partial fraction expansion).

Note, that $(x I - A)^{-1}$ is the Laplace transformation of e^{At} ,

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{At}\}(x) = \int_{t=0}^{\infty} e^{-xt} e^{At} dt = (xI - A)^{-1}, \qquad \Re(x) > \max_{k} \Re(\lambda_{k}).$$

The spectral decomposition and matrix functions

From the spectral decomposition

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^{r} (\lambda_k P_k + N_k), \qquad N_k^{m_k - 1} \neq 0, \quad N_k^{m_k} = 0.$$

it follows that for any polynomial p,

$$p(A) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \left(p(\lambda_k) P_k + N_k p'(\lambda_k) + \frac{N_k^2 p''(\lambda_k)}{2} + \frac{N_k^3 p^{(3)}(\lambda_k)}{3!} + \dots + \frac{N_k^{m_k - 1} p^{(m_k - 1)}(\lambda_k)}{(m_k - 1)!} \right)$$

Taking limits, it follows that for any analytic function defined on neighborhood of the spectrum of A,

$$f(A) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \left(f(\lambda_k) P_k + N_k f'(\lambda_k) + \frac{N_k^2 f''(\lambda_k)}{2} + \frac{N_k^3 f^{(3)}(\lambda_k)}{3!} + \dots + \frac{N_k^{m_k-1} f^{(m_k-1)}(\lambda_k)}{(m_k-1)!} \right).$$

The spectral decomposition theorem and stability

Definition: $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be (Hurwitz) stable if $\lim_{t\to\infty} e^{At} = 0$.

From

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=1}^{r} e^{\lambda_k t} \left(P_k + N_k t + \frac{(N_k t)^2}{2} + \frac{(N_k t)^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{(N_k t)^{m_k - 1}}{(m_k - 1)!} \right)$$

it follows that A is **stable** iff all of its eigenvalues have negative real part.

Reason: for any polynomial p and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} |e^{\lambda t} p(t)| = \lim_{t \to \infty} e^{\Re(\lambda) t} |p(t)| = \begin{cases} \infty & \Re(\lambda) > 0 \text{ or } (\Re(\lambda) = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{degree}(p) > 0), \\ |p| & \Re(\lambda) = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{degree}(p) \le 0, \\ 0 & \Re(\lambda) < 0. \end{cases}$$

Corollary. If $\beta > \max\{\Re(\lambda_k) \mid k = 1, ..., r\}$ (spectral abscissa) then to any norm $\|\cdot\|$ there is a constant $M \ge 1$ such that

 $||e^{At}|| \le M e^{\beta t}$ for $t \ge 0$. ((M, β) -stability)

<u>Proof.</u> $A - \beta I$ is stable. Thus $||e^{(A-\beta I)t}|| \leq M$ for some M and all $t \geq 0$.

Examples: transient behaviour of stable matrices

The picture below shows the function $t \mapsto \|e^{At}\|_2$ for the stable matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -0.6 & c \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

and several values of $c \in \mathbb{R}$.



Examples: transient behaviour of stable matrices

The picture below shows the function $t\mapsto \|e^{At}\|_2$ for the stable matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -100 & 0 & -150 & 0 & 200 & -1000 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -10 & 25 & 11 & -200 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 400 & -30 & 0 & 250 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 5 & 5 & 200 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 & 30 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -625 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of A are $-1, -1 \pm 10i, -1 \pm 20i, -1 \pm 25i$.



Growth bounds for $||e^{At}||$ (More growth bounds on the next slide collection). Let $||\cdot||$ be a submultiplicative norm with ||I|| = 1. Especially,

$$\|A\|_{1} = \max_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ik}|, \qquad \|A\|_{2} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^{*}A)}, \qquad \|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |a_{ik}|.$$

Then we have for $t \ge 0$:

(1) $||e^{At}|| \le e^{||A||t}$.

(2)
$$\hat{\beta} := \min\{\beta > 0 \mid \|e^{At}\| \le e^{\beta t}, t \ge 0\} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \hat{\beta} = \lim_{t \searrow 0} \frac{\|I + At\| - 1}{t}.$$

(3)
$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \max_k \left(\Re(a_{kk}) + \sum_{i \neq k} |a_{ik}| \right), \quad \hat{\beta}_2 = \lambda_{\max} \left(\frac{A + A^*}{2} \right), \quad \hat{\beta}_\infty = \max_i \left(\Re(a_{ii}) + \sum_{k \neq i} |a_{ik}| \right)$$

(4) Suppose $A = V \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) V^{-1}$. Let $\alpha = \max\{\Re(\lambda_1), \ldots, \Re(\lambda_n)\}$. Then

$$||e^{At}|| \le ||V|| \, ||V^{-1}|| \, e^{\alpha t}$$

 $(||V|| ||V^{-1}|| = \text{condition number of } V, \alpha = \text{spectral abscissa}).$

<u>Proof.</u> (1) and (4) are trivial. For (2) and (3) see Hinrichsen, Pritchard: Mathematical Systems Theory 1.

Stability and bounded inputs

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be stable such that

$$\|e^{At}\| \le M e^{\beta t} \quad \beta < 0,$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ satisfies $\|Xv\| \le \|X\| \|v\|$ for matrices X and vectors v. Then the solution of $\dot{x} = Ax$, x(0) = 0

satisfies

$$\|x(t)\| = \left\| \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} f(s) \, ds \right\| \le \begin{cases} \frac{M}{|\beta|} \sup_{s \in [0,t]} \|f(s)\|, \\ M\left(\frac{1}{|q|\beta|}\right)^{1/q} \left(\int_0^t \|f(s)\|^p \, ds\right)^{1/p}, \ p,q \ge 1, \ p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1. \end{cases}$$

<u>Proof.</u> We have for $q \ge 1$,

$$\int_0^t \|e^{A(t-s)}\|^q \, ds = \int_0^t \|e^{As}\|^q \, ds \le M^q \int_0^t e^{-q\,|\beta|\,s} \, ds = M^q \frac{1 - e^{-q\,|\beta|\,t}}{q\,|\beta|} \le \frac{M^q}{q\,|\beta|}.$$

Now, using Hölder inequality,

$$\left\|\int_{0}^{t} e^{A(t-s)} f(s) \, ds\right\| \leq \int_{0}^{t} \|e^{A(t-s)}\| \, \|f(s)\| \, ds \leq \left(\int_{0}^{t} \|e^{A(t-s)}\|^{q} \, ds\right)^{1/q} \, \left(\int_{0}^{t} \|f(s)\|^{p} \, ds\right)^{1/p}$$

Stability and periodic inputs

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be stable, and let $f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{C}^n$ be *T*-periodic, i.e. f(t+T) = f(t) for some T > 0.

Then any solution of $\dot{x} = Ax + f$ converges for $t \to \infty$ to the *T*-periodic function

$$\hat{x}(t) = \int_0^\infty e^{As} f(t-s) \, ds$$

In particular, for any $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$ and any vector v the solutions of

$$\dot{x} = Ax + e^{i\,\omega\,t}\,v$$

converge to

$$\hat{x}(t) = e^{i\omega t} v_{\omega}$$
 where $v_{\omega} = (i \omega I - A)^{-1} v$.



Proof. We have

$$x(t) = e^{At} x(0) + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} f(s) \, ds = \underbrace{e^{At} x(0)}_{\to 0} + \int_0^t e^{At} f(t-s) \, ds \to \int_0^\infty e^{At} f(t-s) \, ds,$$

and for $f(t) = e^{i\omega t} v$,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{As} e^{i\omega(t-s)} v = e^{i\omega t} \int_0^\infty e^{(A-i\omega I)s} v \, ds = e^{i\omega t} (A-i\omega I)^{-1} \int_0^\infty \underbrace{(A-i\omega I)e^{(A-i\omega I)s}}_{=\frac{d}{ds}e^{(A-i\omega I)s}} v \, ds = \hat{x}(t).$$

Stability and small nonlinear feedback

Theorem. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be stable. Let

$$r = \frac{1}{\max_{\omega \in \mathbb{R}} \|(i\omega I - A)^{-1}\|_2} = \min_{\omega \in \mathbb{R}} \sigma_{\min}(i\omega I - A) \qquad \text{(stability radius)}$$

Let f be differentiable and such that

 $||f(t,x)||_2 < r ||x||_2.$

Then the solutions of

$$\dot{x}(t) = A x(t) + f(t, x(t))$$

satisfy

 $\lim_{t\to\infty}x(t)=0.$

Proof. This follows from the KYP-Lemma. A more general result will be given later.

Relationship between stability radius and frequency response



Recall: for stable A the solutions of

$$\dot{x} = Ax + e^{i\,\omega\,t}\,v$$

converge to

$$\hat{x}(t) = e^{i\omega t} (i\omega I - A)^{-1} v.$$

Signal amplification: $a = \frac{\|(i \omega I - A)^{-1}v\|_2}{\|v\|_2}$, in worst case $a = \|(i \omega I - A)^{-1}\|_2$.

Stability radius:

$$r = \frac{1}{\max_{\omega \in \mathbb{R}} \|(i\omega I - A)^{-1}\|_2} = \frac{1}{\text{maximum amplification factor}}$$

The Jordan chains

A finite sequence $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_\ell \in \mathcal{V} \setminus \{0\}$ is said to be a **Jordan chain** of $A \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V})$ to the eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$ if

$$Av_{1} = \lambda v_{1} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \quad (A - \lambda I)v_{1} = 0$$

$$Av_{2} = \lambda v_{2} + v_{1} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \quad (A - \lambda I)v_{2} = v_{1}$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$Av_{\ell} = \lambda v_{\ell} + v_{\ell-1} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \quad (A - \lambda I)v_{\ell} = v_{\ell-1}$$

For a Jordan chain we have

$$A [v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell}] = [v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell}] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \\ & & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{J}_{\ell}(\lambda), \text{ Jordan block of size } \ell}$$

and

$$v_k = (A - \lambda I)^{\ell - k} v_\ell, \qquad (A - \lambda I)^\ell v_\ell = (A - \lambda I) v_1 = 0,$$

Thus

$$v_k \in \operatorname{Ker} (A - \lambda I)^k \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} (A - \lambda I)^{\ell}.$$

It is easily verified that the vectors of a Jordan chain are linearly independent and span an A-invariant subspace.

The Jordan canonical form theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with minimal polynomial $\mu_A(x) = \prod_{k=1}^r (x - \lambda_k)^{m_k}$.

Then \mathbb{C}^n has a basis $V = [v_1, v_2, \dots v_n]$ consisting of Jordan chains, i.e.

$$V^{-1}AV = \operatorname{diag}(\mathcal{J}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{J}_r), \qquad \mathcal{J}_k = \operatorname{diag}(\mathcal{J}_{p_{k1}}(\lambda_k), \ldots, \mathcal{J}_{p_{ki}}(\lambda_k), \ldots)$$

The λ_k are the eigenvalues of A.

The sizes of the Jordan blocks are unique (up to ordering). The maximum size of a Jordan block to the eigenvalue λ_k equals the multiplicity m_k of λ_k in μ_A .

Proof. omitted.

Jordan canonical form and matrix exponential

Fact 1: Let v_1, \ldots, v_ℓ be a Jordan chain for A to the eigenvalue λ such that

$$Av_1 = \lambda v_1, \qquad Av_k = \lambda v_k + v_{k-1}, \quad k = 2, \dots, \ell.$$

Then the functions

$$\begin{aligned} x_1(t) &= e^{\lambda_k t} v_1, \\ x_2(t) &= e^{\lambda_k t} (v_2 + t v_1), \\ x_3(t) &= e^{\lambda_k t} (v_3 + t v_2 + \frac{t^2}{2} v_1), \\ &\vdots \\ x_\ell(t) &= e^{\lambda_k t} (v_\ell + t v_{\ell-1} + \frac{t^2}{2} v_{\ell-2} + \dots + \frac{t^{\ell-1}}{(\ell-1)!} v_1) \end{aligned}$$

fulfill the homogeneous ODE

$$\dot{x}_j(t) = A \, x_j(t).$$

Proof. direct computation.

Fact 2: All solutions of $\dot{x} = Ax$ are linear combinations of the above.

Jordan canonical form and matrix exponential

Fact 3. Exponential of Jordan block:

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \\ & & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad e^{Jt} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t & \frac{t^2}{2} & \dots & \frac{t^{\ell-1}}{(\ell-1)!} \\ & 1 & t & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & & 1 & t \\ & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

<u>Proof.</u> The matrix on the right fulfills $\dot{Y} = JY$, Y(0) = I.

Fact 4. For all powers $k = 1, 2, \ldots$,

$$A = V \operatorname{diag}(A_1, \dots, A_r) V^{-1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad A^k = V \operatorname{diag}(A_1^k, \dots, A_r^k) V^{-1}.$$

By summation it follows that

$$A = V \operatorname{diag}(A_1, \dots, A_r) V^{-1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad e^{At} = V \operatorname{diag}(e^{A_1 t}, \dots, e^{A_r t}) V^{-1}.$$

This in particular holds if the matrices A_j are Jordan blocks.

Jordan form and realization

Basic question of realization theory:

For a prescribed function of the form (Bohl function)

$$G(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} e^{\lambda_k t} \sum_{j=0}^{m_k-1} G_{kj} \frac{t^j}{j!}, \qquad G_{kj} \in \mathbb{C}^{p,q}$$

find matrices A, B, C such that the output y of the linear system

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad y = Cx, \quad x(0) = 0 \quad (*)$$

is given by

$$y(t) = \int_0^t G(t-s) u(s) \, ds = \int_0^t C e^{A(t-s)} B u(s) \, ds.$$

This can always be achieved by a matrix A consisting of Jordan blocks (though this might not be the optimal way).

An example is given on the following page.

Note that the Laplace transform of (*) is

$$\hat{y}(z) = \hat{G}(z) \,\hat{u}(z), \qquad \hat{G}(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \sum_{j=0}^{m_k-1} \frac{G_{kj}}{(z-\lambda_k)^{j+1}}$$

 \widehat{G} is called the **transfer function** of the system (*).

Jordan form and realization

Realization example. Suppose

$$G(t) = e^{\lambda_1 t} G_1 + e^{\lambda_2 t} \left(G_{20} + G_{21} t + G_{22} \frac{t^2}{2} \right), \qquad G_{kj} \in \mathbb{C}^{p,q}.$$

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 I & & \\ & \lambda_2 I & I \\ & & \lambda_2 I & I \\ & & & \lambda_2 I \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} G_1 & G_{20} & G_{21} & G_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$e^{At}B = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t}I & & & \\ & e^{\lambda_2 t}I & e^{\lambda_2 t}tI & e^{\lambda_2 t}\frac{t^2}{2}I \\ & & e^{\lambda_2 t}I & e^{\lambda_2 t}tI \\ & & & e^{\lambda_2 t}I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t}I \\ e^{\lambda_2 t}\frac{t^2}{2}I \\ e^{\lambda_2 t}tI \\ e^{\lambda_2 t}I \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$C e^{At} B = \begin{bmatrix} G_1 & G_{20} & G_{21} & G_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} I \\ e^{\lambda_2 t} \frac{t^2}{2} I \\ e^{\lambda_2 t} t I \\ e^{\lambda_2 t} I \end{bmatrix} = G(t).$$

Perturbation of matrix exponential

For $A, \mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$e^{(A+E)t} = e^{At} + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} E e^{(A+E)s} \, ds = e^{At} + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} E e^{As} \, ds + \mathcal{O}(||E||^2).$$

<u>Proof.</u> Let $X(t) = e^{(A+E)t}$. Then

$$X(0) = I, \quad \dot{X}(t) = (A+E)X(t) = AX(t) + F(t), \quad F(t) = E e^{(A+E)t}.$$

$$e^{(A+E)t} = X(t) = e^{At}I + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)}F(s) ds$$

= $e^{At} + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)}E \underbrace{e^{(A+E)s}}_{G(s)} ds.$

By the same formula with t replaced with s,

$$G(s) = e^{(A+E)s} = e^{As} + \int_0^s e^{A(s-\tau)} E e^{(A+E)\tau} d\tau.$$

Thus,

Thus,

$$e^{(A+E)t} = e^{At} + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} E e^{As} \, ds + \underbrace{\int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} E \int_0^s e^{A(s-\tau)} E \, e^{(A+E)\tau} \, d\tau \, ds}_{\mathcal{O}(||E||^2)}$$

Numerical computation of the matrix exponential

Method, implemented as MATLAB function expm(A):

Pade approximation combined with scaling and squaring.

Pade approximation (rational approximation) of scalar exponential:

$$e^x \approx r_m(x) = \frac{p_m(x)}{p_m(-x)}$$
, where $p_m(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m \frac{(2m-j)! m!}{(m-j)! (2m)! j!} x^j$ (good for $|x|$ small)

For any integer m, $e^{At} = (e^{At/m})^m$. Thus (scaling and squaring):

$$e^{A} = (e^{A/2^{s}})^{2^{s}} = B_{s},$$
 where $B_{1} = e^{A/2^{s}}, B_{k+1} = B_{k}^{2}, k = 1, \dots, s-1.$

MATLAB:

$$e^A \approx r_6 (A/2^s)^{2^s}, \quad ||A/2^s||_{\infty} \le 1/2.$$

For more sophisticated methods see book and talks (WWW) by N. Higham.

Final comments:

Literature on numerical computation of matrix exponential:

- Cleve Moler, Charles Van Loan.
 Paper: Dubious Ways to Compute the Exponential of a Matrix, Twenty-Five Year Later. SIAM review, 45, No 1, (2003)
- 2) N. J. Higham. Book: Functions of Matrices: Theory and Computation. SIAM (2008)
- 3) N. J. Higham. Slides: How and How Not to Compute the Exponential of a Matrix http://www.maths.manchester.ac.uk/~higham/talks/exp10.pdf

Matrix exponential in MATLAB: expm(A)

Examples of $||e^{At}||$ are from Hinrichsen, Pritchard: Mathematical Systems Theory 1

'Ansatz' (german) in math. context: preparation, basic approach

Piers Bohl (1865 1921) was a Latvian mathematician