

EE422 Mathematical Economics 2

Continuous Time: Second-Order Differential Equations and Systems in the Plane

Read Chapter 6 Sydaeter et al.

Only 6.4 – 6.9

topics

- 6.1 introduction
- 6.2 Linear Differential equations, second-order
- 6.3 Constant Coefficients
- 6.4 Stability for linear equations
- 6.5 Simultaneous equations in the plane
- 6.6 Equilibrium points for linear systems
- 6.7 Phase plane analysis
- 6.8 Stability for nonlinear systems
- 6.9 Saddle Points

6.1 Introduction

Second-order dif equation is written as

$$\ddot{x} = F(t, x, \dot{x}) \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

where $x(t)$ is the unknown function.

A solution of (1) is a twice-differentiable function that satisfy (1).

6.1 Introduction: simplest case

Ex1. $\ddot{x} = k$ where k is a constant.

Solution: $\ddot{x} = \frac{d\dot{x}}{dt}$. Direct integration

$$\Rightarrow \dot{x} = \int k dt = kt + A.$$

Integrating once more, we get

$$x = \frac{1}{2} kt^2 + At + B.$$

6.1 Introduction: when x or t is missing

- These two special cases are

$$(2a) \ddot{x} = F(t, \dot{x})$$

$$(2b) \ddot{x} = F(x, \dot{x})$$

In (2a), x is missing. Let $u \equiv \dot{x}$. Then (2a) becomes

$\dot{u} = F(t, u)$ which is first – order equation.

If we can find $u(t)$, then integrating $u(t)$ will give us the general solution of (2a).

6.1 Introduction: when x or t is missing

Ex1. $\ddot{x} = F(t, \dot{x}) = t + \dot{x}$.

Let $u \equiv \dot{x}$ *yields* $\dot{u} = t + u$.

Solution is $u(t) = Ae^t - t - 1$.

Hence $\dot{x} = Ae^t - t - 1$. *Integrating yields*

$$x(t) = \int (Ae^t - t - 1) dt = Ae^t - 0.5t^2 - t + B.$$

6.1 Introduction: when x or t is missing

$$(2b) \ddot{x} = F(x, \dot{x})$$

t is not here, eq is called autonomous.

(2b) cannot be solved explicitly, except in special cases.

Ex. $\ddot{x} = -x\dot{x}^3$ see p.222

6.1 Introduction:

$$\ddot{x} = F(t, x, \dot{x}) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Similarly, (1) is even harder to solve for $x(t)$ when both \dot{x} and t are there.

Generally, we use numerical solution for a given initial condition.

Some case we can find values of A and B by some initial conditions. For example,

$$x(t_0) = x_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{x}(t_0) = a.$$

6.1 Introduction:

Ex. $\ddot{x} = \dot{x} + t$ and $x(0) = 1$ and $\dot{x}(0) = 2$.

Solution : $x = Ae^t - 0.5t^2 - t + B$.

For $x(0) = 1$, $1 = A + B$

For $\dot{x}(0) = 2$, $2 = A - 1$

Thus, $A = 3$, $B = -2$

The unique solution is $x = 3e^t - .5t^2 - t - 2$.

6.2 Linear Differential Equation

The general 2nd-order linear dif eq is

$$\ddot{x} + a(t)\dot{x} + b(t)x = f(t) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

There is no explicit solution of (1) in the general case or non-homogenous case.

When RHS=0, we have:

Homogenous: *let* $f(t) = 0$

$$\ddot{x} + a(t)\dot{x} + b(t)x = 0 \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

6.2 Linear Differential Equation

$$\ddot{x} + a(t)\dot{x} + b(t)x = 0 \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

First, we claim that if $u_1 = u_1(t)$ and $u_2 = u_2(t)$ both satisfy (2), then $x = Au_1 + Bu_2$ also satisfies (2).

Check : $\dot{x} = A\dot{u}_1 + B\dot{u}_2$ and $\ddot{x} = A\ddot{u}_1 + B\ddot{u}_2$

Substitute these in (2), we get

$$A[\underbrace{\ddot{u}_1 + a(t)\dot{u}_1 + b(t)u_1}_0] + B[\underbrace{\ddot{u}_2 + a(t)\dot{u}_2 + b(t)u_2}_0]$$

by assumption that u_1 and u_2 solve (2). Thus, we prove that $x = Au_1 + Bu_2$ satisfies (2).

The sum of two or more solutions of homogenous dif eq. is also a solution.

6.2 Linear Differential Equation

Theorem 6.2.1

(a) Homogenous dif eq. $\ddot{x} + a(t)\dot{x} + b(t)x = 0$

has the general solution

$$x = Au_1(t) + Bu_2(t) \quad \text{where}$$

$u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$ are two solutions that are not proportional. (multiples of each other)

(b) The nonhomogenous dif eq has the general

solution $x = Au_1(t) + Bu_2(t) + u^*(t)$

where $u^*(t)$ is any particular solution of the non homogenous equation.

6.2 Linear Differential Equation

Ex. find the general solutions of $\ddot{x} - x = t$

First look at homogenous part. We need some functions $x(t)$ that do not change when differentiated twice.

How about $x = e^t \Rightarrow \dot{x} = e^t, \ddot{x} = e^t$,

and $x = e^{-t} \Rightarrow \dot{x} = -e^{-t}, \ddot{x} = e^{-t}$ not proportional.

The general solution of the homogenous part is

$$x = Ae^t + Be^{-t}.$$

6.2 Linear Differential Equation

For non-homogenous, the general solution is a complementary function + a particular function.

By trial and error we find that

$u^*(t) = -t$ where $u^*(t)$ is any particular solution.

Thus, the general solution is

$$x = Ae^t + Be^{-t} - t$$

We have no general method to find two solutions of homogenous part, except when $a(t)$ and $b(t)$ are both constants.

6.3 Linear Differential Equation: Homogenous with constant coefficients.

Consider the homogenous eq.

$$\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = 0 \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

By Thm 6.2.1 we need to find $u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$ solutions that are not proportional.

Consider $x = e^{rt}$ this function has properties

$$\dot{x} = re^{rt} = rx \quad \text{and} \quad \ddot{x} = r^2e^{rt} = r^2x.$$

So $x, \dot{x},$ and \ddot{x} are constant multiples of each other.

6.3 Linear Differential Equation: Homogenous with constant coef.

Idea: we try to adjust r so that $x = e^{rt}$ satisfy (1).

This requires $r^2x + arx + bx = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x(r^2 + ar + b) = 0.$$

We need $r^2 + ar + b = 0$, *Characteristic eq. of (1)*.

Two characteristic roots are

$$r_1 = -\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b}, \quad r_2 = -\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b}.$$

The roots are real iff $\boxed{\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b \geq 0}$.

$$[\text{Note : } Ax^2 + Bx + C \Rightarrow x = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}]$$

Theorem 6.3.1: Homogenous

Theorem 6.3.1

The general solution of $\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = 0$ is

(1) If $\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b > 0$, $x = Ae^{r_1 t} + Be^{r_2 t}$.

(2) If $\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b = 0$, $x = (A + Bt)e^{rt}$, where $r = -.5a$

(3) If $\frac{1}{4}a^2 - b < 0$, $x = e^{\alpha t} (A \cos \beta t + B \sin \beta t)$,

where $r = \alpha \pm i\beta$ and $\alpha = -.5a$, $\beta = \sqrt{b - \frac{1}{4}a^2}$.

(1) Two distinct real roots; (2) one real double root;

(3) complex roots or no real roots

Theorem 6.3.1: Homogenous

In case (2), the general solution is

$x = Ae^{rt} + Bg(t)$, where $g(t)$ is some solution that is not a constant multiple of e^{rt} .

We can see that a possible $g(t)$ is te^{rt} .

Hence the general solution is $(A + Bt)e^{rt}$.

Theorem 6.3.1: Homogenous

Note that in (3) : $x = e^{\alpha t} (A \cos \beta t + B \sin \beta t)$

α and $\beta > 0$ and are real.

This is derived from $r_1 = \alpha + i\beta$ and $r_2 = \alpha - i\beta$.

Thus, $x = Ae^{(\alpha+i\beta)t} + Be^{(\alpha-i\beta)t}$

$$= e^{\alpha t} (Ae^{i\beta t} + Be^{-i\beta t})$$

where $i \equiv \sqrt{-1}$ or $i^2 = -1$.

In practice, we prefer to work with real functions than complex exponentials. We can apply Euler's formula

Next, use $e^{i\beta t} = \cos \beta t + i \sin \beta t$,

and $e^{-i\beta t} = \cos \beta t - i \sin \beta t$.

Theorem 6.3.1: Homogenous

$$\begin{aligned}x &= Ae^{(\alpha+i\beta)t} + Be^{(\alpha-i\beta)t} = e^{\alpha t}(Ae^{i\beta t} + Be^{-i\beta t}) \\&= e^{\alpha t}(A \cos \beta t + Ai \sin \beta t + B \cos \beta t - Bi \sin \beta t) \\&= e^{\alpha t}(A' \cos \beta t + B' \sin \beta t)\end{aligned}$$

where $A' = A + B$ and $B' = i(A - B)$.

These A' and B' are real numbers when A and B are complex conjugates.

Another form is $x = Ce^{\alpha t} \cos(\beta t + D)$.

$$\text{Ex1. } \ddot{x} - 3x = 0$$

$$x = e^{rt}, \ddot{x} = r^2x \Rightarrow r^2x - 3x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x(r^2 - 3) = 0$$

Characteristic eq.: $r^2 - 3 = 0$ has 2 real roots

$$r_1 = -\sqrt{3} \text{ and } r_2 = \sqrt{3}.$$

The general solution is

$$x = Ae^{-\sqrt{3}t} + Be^{\sqrt{3}t}.$$

$$\text{Ex2. } \ddot{x} - 4\dot{x} + 4x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x(r^2 - 4r + 4) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r^2 - 4r + 4 = (r - 2)^2 \text{ has } r = 2.$$

The general solution is $x = (A + Bt)e^{2t}$.

$$\text{Ex3. } \ddot{x} - 6\dot{x} + 13x = 0$$

$\Rightarrow r^2 - 6r + 13 = 0$ has no real roots.

check $\frac{1}{4}(-6)^2 - 13 < 0$.

$$\alpha = -a/2 = -(-6)/2 = 3;$$

$$\beta = \sqrt{13 - .25(-6)^2} = 2$$

The general solution is

$$x = e^{3t}(A \cos 2t + B \sin 2t).$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Consider the nonhomogenous eq.

$$\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = f(t) \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

By thm 6.2.1, the general solution is

$$x(t) = Au_1(t) + Bu_2(t) + u^*(t).$$

How do we find $u^*(t)$? The method of undetermined coefficients works in many cases.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Consider 3 cases of $f(t)$ when $b \neq 0$

(note that if $b = 0$, we have a case of missing x (case 2a)).

Case 1. $f(t) = A$ (constant)

The particular sol of $\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = A$

$$\text{is } u^*(t) = A / b.$$

If $u^* = c$, then $\dot{u}^* = \ddot{u}^* = 0$, so $bc = A$ or $c = A / b$.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Case 2. $f(t)$ is polynomial.

Suppose $f(t)$ is degree n . The particular sol of

$$\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = f(t) \quad \dots\dots(4)$$

$$\text{is } u^*(t) = A_n t^n + A_{n-1} t^{n-1} + \dots + A_1 t + A_0.$$

We find all A 's by requiring u^* satisfying (4).

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

$$\text{Ex. } \ddot{x} - 4\dot{x} + 4x = t^2 + 2 \dots\dots (*)$$

$f(t)$

$f(t)$ is polynomial of degree 2.

Let $u^* = At^2 + Bt + C$, next

try to adjust A, B, C to give a solution

$$(i) \dot{u}^* = 2At + B; (ii) \ddot{u}^* = 2A$$

Sub (i), (ii) and u^* into (*) yields

$$2A - 4(2At + B) + 4(At^2 + Bt + C) = t^2 + 2$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

rearrange LHS to get similar to RHS

$$4A t^2 + \underbrace{(4B - 8A)}_0 t + \underbrace{(2A - 4B + 4C)}_2 = t^2 + 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4A = 1, \text{ or } A = 1 / 4.$$

$$\Rightarrow 4B - 8A = 0 \text{ or } B = 2A = 1 / 2.$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(2 \frac{1}{4} - 4 \frac{1}{2} + 4C\right) = 2 \text{ or } C = 7 / 8.$$

$$\text{So, } u^* = \frac{1}{4} t^2 + \frac{1}{2} t + \frac{7}{8}.$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Ex. (you try) $\ddot{x} + 4\dot{x} - 2x = \underbrace{2t^2 - 2t + 6}_{f(t)} \dots\dots (*)$

$f(t)$ is polynomial of degree 2.

For Homogenous part, the auxiliary equation is

$r^2 + 4r - 2 = 0$. We get two distinct real roots:

$$r_1 = -2 - \sqrt{6} \quad \text{and} \quad r_2 = -2 + \sqrt{6}.$$

The general solution is $x = c_1 e^{-2-\sqrt{6}t} + c_2 e^{-2+\sqrt{6}t}$

For non-homogenous part, Let $u^* = At^2 + Bt + C$.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Next try to adjust A, B, C to give a solution

$$(i) \dot{u}^* = 2At + B; \text{ and } (ii) \ddot{u}^* = 2A$$

Sub $(i), (ii)$ and u^* into $(*)$ yields

$$2A + 8At + 4B - 2At^2 - 2Bt - 2C = 2t^2 - 3t + 6$$

rearrange LHS to fit RHS

$$-2At^2 + (8A - 2B)t + (2A + 4B - 2C) = 2t^2 - 3t + 6$$

Thus the particular solution is

$$u = -t^2 - \frac{5}{2}t - 9$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Case 3. $f(t) = pe^{qt}$, where p and q are constants.

$\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = pe^{qt}$ has the particular solution

$$u^* = \frac{p}{q^2 + aq + b} e^{qt}.$$

In all 3 cases, notice that u^* has a same form as $f(t)$.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Euler's Differential Equation

$$t^2 \ddot{x} + at^1 \dot{x} + bx = 0, \quad (t > 0)$$

Trick: make it to a new independent variable s

where $t = e^s$ or $s = \ln t$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dx}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{dx}{ds} \frac{1}{t} \\ \ddot{x} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{ds} \frac{1}{t} \right) = -\frac{1}{t^2} \frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{1}{t} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{ds} \right)\end{aligned}$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

$$= -\frac{1}{t^2} \frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{1}{t} \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{dx}{ds} \right) \frac{ds}{dt}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{t^2} \frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{1}{t} \frac{d^2x}{ds^2} \frac{1}{t}. \text{ Use these we get}$$

$$-\frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{d^2x}{ds^2} + at \frac{dx}{ds} \frac{1}{t} + bx = 0, \text{ or}$$

$$\frac{d^2x}{ds^2} + (a-1) \frac{dx}{ds} + bx = 0$$

this is an ordinary 2nd eq. with constant coef.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

Ex. solve $t^2\ddot{x} + t\dot{x} - x = 0$. [$a = 1, b = -1$]

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{ds^2} + (1 - 1)\frac{dx}{ds} + (-1)x = 0 \text{ where } s = \ln t.$$

Now, 2nd diff. eq. with constant coef. : $a = 0, b = -1$.

$$\text{characteristic eq : } r^2 + ar + b = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r^2 + 0.r + (-1) = 0.$$

$$\text{check roots : } \frac{1}{4}a^2 - b = 0 - (-1) > 0.$$

So, we have a case with 2 different real roots.

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

$$x(s) = Ae^{r_1 s} + Be^{r_2 s}; \text{ use formula}$$

$$r_1 = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot 0 + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} \cdot 0^2 - (-1)} = 1;$$

$$r_2 = -1.$$

$$\text{Thus } x(s) = Ae^{1s} + Be^{-1s}.$$

Since $s \equiv \ln t$ or $e^s = t$, so

$$x(t) = At + Bt^{-1}.$$

6.3 Non-Homogenous Equation

ex. $t^2 \ddot{x} + 3t \dot{x} + \frac{3}{4} x = 0$

\Rightarrow show that this is an Euler equation

whose the general solution is

$$x(t) = At^{-1/2} + Bt^{-3/2} + 4.$$

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations

- A solution of the system may be interpreted as the resulting path of a particle that is initially placed at position $X(0)$ or initial conditions.
- If $X(0)$ is just a critical points, then the particle remains stationary.
- Now, we look at the behavior of the solution when $X(0)$ is chosen close to a critical point of the system.
- Now, suppose X_1 is critical points, we are interested in answering these questions:

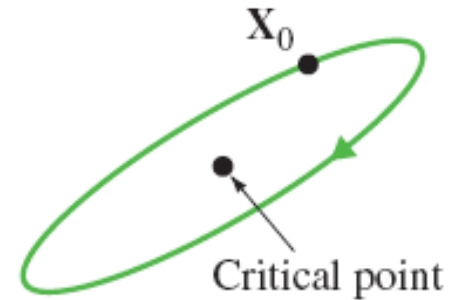
6.4 Stability for Linear Equations

- If $X(0)$ is placed near X_1 , or we think this as one or more initial conditions are changed, obviously, the solution will change. We want to know
- (a) will the particle return to the critical point? More precisely does $\lim X(t)=X_1$?
- (b) If the particle does not return to the critical point, does it remain close to the critical points or move away from it?

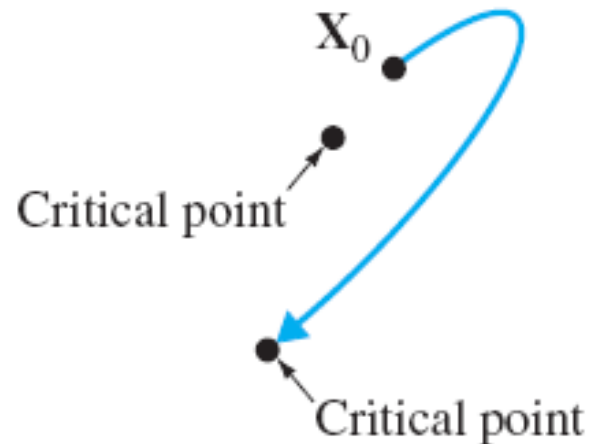
6.4 Stability for Linear Equations



(a) Locally stable



(b) Locally stable



(c) Unstable

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations

- Will small changes in the initial conditions have any effect on the long-run behavior of the solution, or will the effect die out as t goes to infinity (meaning that the particle eventually goes to the critical points) ?
- Two concepts: Stability requires only that small perturbations of the equilibrium yield a solution that remains **close** to the equilibrium, whereas asymptotic stability requires that the solution eventually returns to the equilibrium (not just only stay close) as t goes to infinity.

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations

- If their effects die out, we have the system that is asymptotically stable.
- If it leads to big changes in the behavior of the solution in the long run, then the system is unstable.
- If a neighborhood of an equilibrium point is extended to the whole domain, we call it globally asymptotically stable. That is, all solution paths approach equilibrium, regardless of initial conditions. Ex. $\dot{x} = ax$ with $a < 0$.
- Obviously, asymptotic stability is a stronger property than stability.

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations

$$\ddot{x} + a(t)\dot{x} + b(t)x = f(t) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

The solution of (1) is $x = Au_1(t) + Bu_2(t) + u^*(t)$,
where $Au_1(t) + Bu_2(t)$ is the general solution of
homogenous and $u^*(t)$ is a particular solution.

Eq.(1) is called **globally asym. stable** if *every* general
solutions of homogenous equation tends to 0
as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for all values of A and B .

Then the effect of the initial conditions dies out eventually.

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations with constant coefficients

$\ddot{x} + a\dot{x} + bx = f(t)$ is globally asym. stable
iff $a > 0$ and $b > 0$(2)

or iff both roots of the characteristic
equation $r^2 + ar + b = 0$ have
negative real parts(3).

6.4 Stability for Linear Eqs with constant coefficients

If $r^2 + ar + b = 0$ has real roots,

$$\text{then } r_1 + r_2 = -a \quad \dots(*)$$

$$\text{and } r_1 r_2 = b \quad \dots(**).$$

To claim that both roots are negative, this

needs (i) a is positive ..from(),*

*and (ii) b is positive ..from(**).*

Conversely, if a, b are both positive, then

we can show that, from (), either r_1 or r_2*

must be negative. So, if one is positive,

*from (**), both must be negative.*

6.4 Stability for Linear Equations with constant coefficients

Look at all 3 cases from Theorem 6.3.1

$$(1) \quad x = Ae^{r_1 t} + Be^{r_2 t}.$$

$$(2) \quad x = (A + Bt)e^{rt}, \quad \text{where } r = -.5a.$$

$$(3) \quad x = e^{\alpha t} (A \cos \beta t + B \sin \beta t), \text{ where } \alpha = -.5a$$

$$\text{and } \beta = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{4b - a^2}.$$

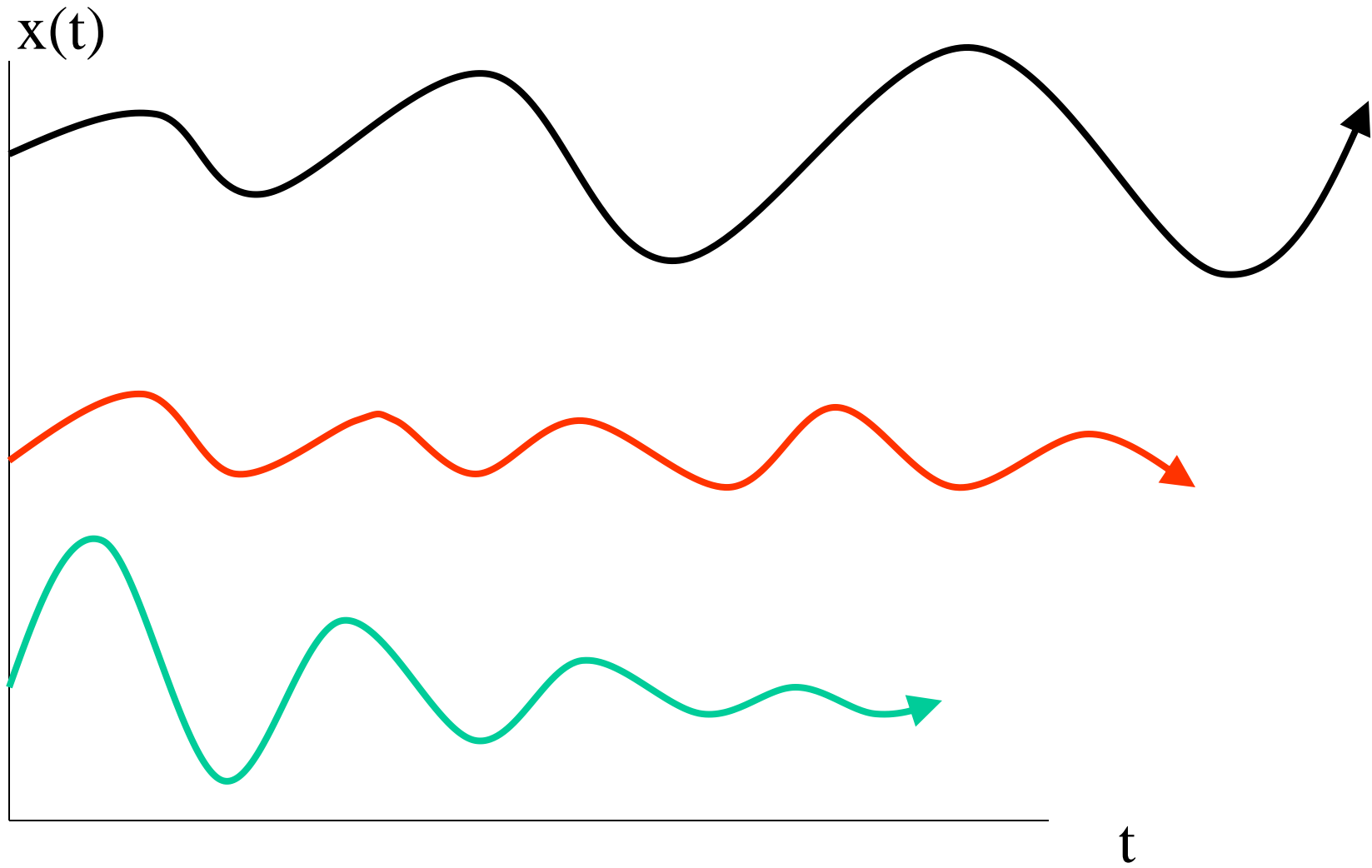
6.4 Stability for Linear Equations with constant coefficients

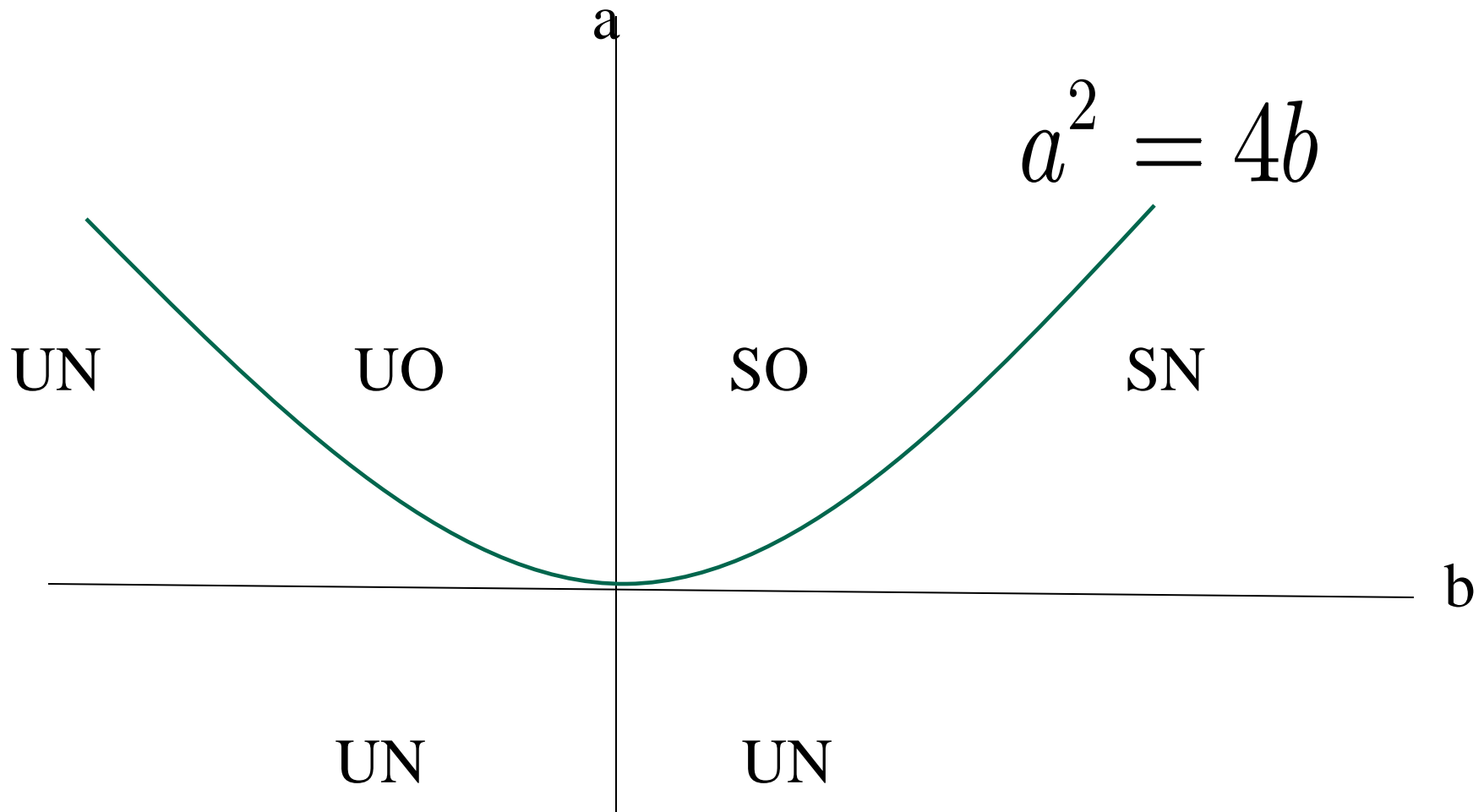
Case 3 depends on the value of α .

If $\alpha > 0$, we have explosive fluctuation.

If $\alpha = 0$, we have uniform fluctuation.

*If $\alpha < 0$, we have damped fluctuation or
convergence time path.*





S=stable, U=unstable, O=oscillatory, N=non-oscillatory

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

Many economic models involve several unknown functions that satisfy a number of simultaneous diff equations :

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

$$\dot{y} = g(t, x, y).$$

In economics, $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are state variables.

Usually, $(x(t_0), y(t_0))$ is known and the future path is then uniquely determined.

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

However, rate of change of each variable depends also on other variable, thus x and y are interacted.

Systems of this type are very complicated.

A solution of (1) is a pair of differentiable functions $(x(t), y(t))$ satisfying (1) and (2).

There is no general method. However, we can find explicit solutions in some special cases.

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

We will discuss some special cases:

(a) *Elimination*

(b) Recursive systems

(c) Linear systems with constant coefficients.

(p.238)

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

(a) Elimination (p.237):

Idea is to reduce the system into only one unknown.

Transform the first equation

$$\dot{x} = f(t, x, y) \text{ to } y = h(t, x, \dot{x}).$$

Differentiate this wrt t and substitute y and \dot{y} into the second equation, hence we express all in terms of x .

Then, solve for $x(t)$ and then we can find $y(t)$.

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

Ex.1. Find the solution of the system

$$\dot{x} = 2x + e^t y - e^t$$

$$\dot{y} = 4e^{-t}x + y$$

Solution:

Solving the first eq. $y = \dot{x}e^{-t} - 2xe^{-t} + 1$

Diff wrt t : $\dot{y} = \ddot{x}e^{-t} - \dot{x}e^{-t} - 2\dot{x}e^{-t} + 2xe^{-t}$

Insert this and y into the second equation gives

$$\ddot{x} - 4\dot{x} = e^t.$$

Use the formula in p.230 section 6.3

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

(b) Recursive (p.237):

When the system takes the special form:

$$\dot{x} = f(t, x, y) \text{ and } \dot{y} = g(t, y).$$

In this case, y is independent.

First, solve \dot{y} and get $y(t)$.

Second, substitute y into \dot{x} and solve for $x(t)$.

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

Consider linear System with constant Coeff.

$$\dot{x} = a_{11}x + a_{12}y + b_1(t)$$

$$\dot{y} = a_{21}x + a_{22}y + b_2(t)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1(t) \\ b_2(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

We will solve for

$$x = \phi(t; A, B) \quad \text{and} \quad y = \varphi(t; A, B)$$

A and B can be specified by initial conditions

for each variable, say $x(t_0) = x_0$ and $y(t_0) = y_0$.

See the formula for the solution of this system in text.

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

Suppose $b_1(t)$ and $b_2(t) = 0$, the linear system with constant coeff. reduces to the linear homo system (solution based on Eigenvalues p. 239)

$$\dot{x} = a_{11}x + a_{12}y$$

$$\dot{y} = a_{21}x + a_{22}y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \dots\dots\dots(7)$$

Let $x = v_1 e^{\lambda t}$ and $y = v_2 e^{\lambda t}$ solution of (7)

for an appropriate choice of numbers v_1, v_2 .

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

Inserting $\dot{x} = v_1 \lambda e^{\lambda t}$ and $\dot{y} = v_2 \lambda e^{\lambda t}$ in (7) yields

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \lambda e^{\lambda t} \\ v_2 \lambda e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 e^{\lambda t} \\ v_2 e^{\lambda t} \end{pmatrix}$$

Get rid of $e^{\lambda t}$

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}}_X = \lambda \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}}_X$$

where X is Eigenvector of matrix A with λ Eigenvalue.

$$\boxed{AX - \lambda X = 0 \Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)X = 0.}$$

6.5 Simultaneous Eqs in the plane

For $X \neq 0$, we need $|A - \lambda I| = 0$, or

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - \underbrace{(a_{11} + a_{22})}_{trA} \lambda + |A| = 0.$$

So, if A has different real eigenvalues, λ_1 and λ_2 , then

A has **2 eigenvectors** that are linearly independent.

Thus, the general solution is

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = A e^{\lambda_1 t} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} + B e^{\lambda_2 t} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ex. } \dot{x} = 0 + 2y$$

$$\dot{y} = x + y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{The characteristic of } A \text{ is } \begin{vmatrix} 0 - \lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda^2 - \lambda - 2 = (\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 2). \text{ Thus, eigenvalues}$$

are $\lambda_1 = -1$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$. The corresponding

eigenvectors are $\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

When $\lambda_1 = -1$, the corresponding eigenvectors

$$\text{is } AX = -1X; \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = -1 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix};$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2v_2 \\ v_1 + v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -v_1 \\ -v_2 \end{pmatrix}; \text{ or } \boxed{v_1 = -2v_2}; \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

When $\lambda_2 = 2$, the corresponding eigenvector

$$\text{is } AX = 2X; \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}; \text{ or}$$

$$\boxed{2v_2 = 2v_1}; \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The general solution is

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} &= A e^{\lambda_1 t} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} + B e^{\lambda_2 t} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= A e^{-1t} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + B e^{2t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} -2A e^{-1t} + B e^{2t} \\ A e^{-1t} + B e^{2t} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 1 Distinct Eigenvalues

Solve

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= 2x + 3y \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= 2x + y.\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

SOLUTION We first find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix of coefficients.

From the characteristic equation

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 3 \\ 2 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 4 = (\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 4) = 0$$

we see that the eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = -1$ and $\lambda_2 = 4$.

Now for $\lambda_1 = -1$, (3) is equivalent to

$$3k_1 + 3k_2 = 0$$

$$2k_1 + 2k_2 = 0.$$

Thus $k_1 = -k_2$. When $k_2 = -1$, the related eigenvector is

$$\mathbf{K}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For $\lambda_2 = 4$ we have

$$-2k_1 + 3k_2 = 0$$

$$2k_1 - 3k_2 = 0$$

so $k_1 = \frac{3}{2}k_2$; therefore with $k_2 = 2$ the corresponding eigenvector is

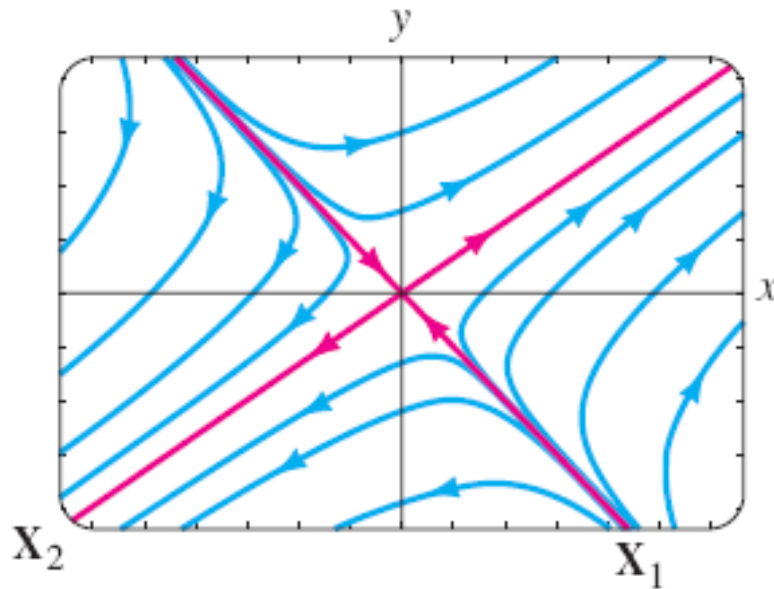
$$\mathbf{K}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since the matrix of coefficients \mathbf{A} is a 2×2 matrix and since we have found two linearly independent solutions of (4),

$$\mathbf{X}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{X}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} e^{4t},$$

we conclude that the general solution of the system is

$$\mathbf{X} = c_1 \mathbf{X}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{X}_2 = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-t} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} e^{4t}. \quad (5) \quad \blacksquare$$



This shows a typical phase portrait of all 2×2 homogeneous linear system with real eigenvalues of opposite signs. (saddle)

If both eigenvalues are positive, the system moves away from the origin. (Repeller)

If both eigenvalues are negative, the system moves toward the origin. (Attractor)

Ex 2. Let add some constants

$$\dot{x} = 2y + 6$$

$$\dot{y} = x + y - 3$$

Trick is to transform this into homogenous system by introducing new variables as a deviation from equilibrium. *When $\dot{x} = \dot{y} = 0$, $(x, y) = (6, -3)$.*

Let call $z = x - 6$ and $w = y + 3$

and $\dot{z} = \dot{x}$, $\dot{w} = \dot{y}$ so the problem becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z} &= 2(w - 3) + 6 = 2w \\ \dot{w} &= (z + 6) + (w - 3) - 3 = z + w \end{aligned} \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{z} \\ \dot{w} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z \\ w \end{pmatrix}.$$

this is the same as before, thus

$$\begin{pmatrix} z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2Ae^{-1t} + Be^{2t} \\ Ae^{-1t} + Be^{2t} \end{pmatrix}.$$

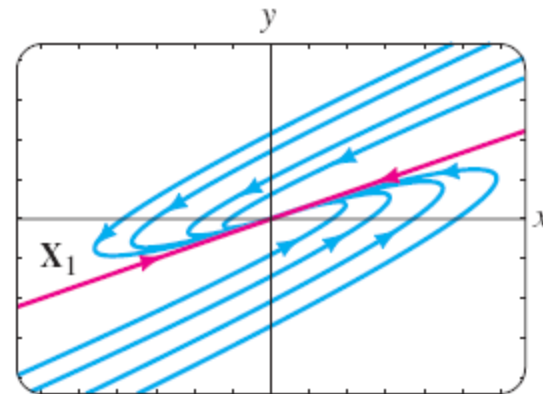
Thus, $x = z + 6 = \dots$

and $y = w - 3 = \dots$

Ex. When A give repeated roots, try this

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -18 \\ 2 & -9 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ find } \lambda = -3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \text{see formula(4) in p.238.}$$



$$\mathbf{X} = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-3t} + c_2 \left[\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} t e^{-3t} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{-3t} \right].$$

This shows a typical picture of phase diagram of all 2x2 homogenous linear systems that have two repeated negative eigenvalues.

6.6 Equilibrium Points for Linear Systems

Consider Linear system with constant coefficients

$$\dot{x} = a_{11}x + a_{12}y + b_1$$

$$\dot{y} = a_{21}x + a_{22}y + b_2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

The equilibrium points are determined by putting $\dot{x} = \dot{y} = 0$ in (1).

6.6 Equilibrium Points for Linear Systems

$$a_{11}x + a_{12}y + b_1 = 0$$

$$a_{21}x + a_{22}y + b_2 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a_{11}x + a_{12}y = -b_1$$

$$a_{21}x + a_{22}y = -b_2 \quad \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

From (2), we can use Cramer's rule

$$x^* = \frac{a_{12}b_2 - a_{22}b_1}{|A|}, y^* = \frac{a_{21}b_1 - a_{11}b_2}{|A|}$$

6.6 Equilibrium Points for Linear Systems

Ex. Find the equilibrium point for

$$\dot{x} = -2x + y + 2$$

$$\dot{y} = -2y + 8$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

First, $|A| = 4 - 0 = 4 > 0$ and $(x^*, y^*) = (3, 4)$

Also you can solve for the general solution

$$x(t) = Ae^{-2t} + Bte^{-2t} + 3, \text{ and}$$

$$y(t) = Be^{-2t} + 4.$$

6.6 Equilibrium Points for Linear Systems: Theorem 6.6.1

The equilibrium point (x^*, y^*) for

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is globally stable iff

$$\text{tr}(A) = a_{11} + a_{22} < 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\det(A) > 0.$$

Equivalently, **iff both eigenvalues of A have negative real parts.**

Some nice properties

$$(1) \quad \boxed{tr(A) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2}$$

so if both have negative real parts,
then $tr(A) < 0$.

$$(2) \quad \boxed{\det |A| = \lambda_1 \lambda_2}$$

check : Suppose $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, we know that

trace(A) = a + d, and $|A| = ad - bc$.

Now find eigenvalue of this matrix A

$$|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ c & d - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (a - \lambda)(d - \lambda) - bc$$

$$= \lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + |A|.$$

Show that (a) $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = a + d$

and (b) $\lambda_1\lambda_2 = ad - bc$.

Ex. Check the stability at $(0,0)$ for

$$\dot{x} = y \text{ and } \dot{y} = -2x - y \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution.

$$\text{tr}(A) = a_{11} + a_{22} = 0 - 1 < 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\det|A| = 0(-1) + 2 = 2 > 0$$

By thm 6.6.1 the equil. point $(0,0)$ is stable.

Alternative Behaviors around Equil.Points

Consider linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{A} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\dot{\mathbf{x}} \qquad \qquad \qquad \mathbf{x}$

If \mathbf{A} is 2x2 real matrix, then there exists \mathbf{T} such that

$$\mathbf{AT} = \mathbf{TB} \text{ or } \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{AT} = \mathbf{B}$$

where \mathbf{T} is eigenvector matrix, and

\mathbf{B} eigenvalue diagonal matrix.

Alternative Behaviors around Equil.Points

Then we can define $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{Y}$. For $\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$, so

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}\dot{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Y} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}.$$

So, we can see the qualitative properties of solution of the system from \mathbf{Y} which is only a linear transformation of \mathbf{X} .

$$\text{Ex. } \dot{x} = 0 + 2y$$

$$\dot{y} = x + y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}. \text{ We have}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where \mathbf{T} is eigenvector matrix, and

\mathbf{B} eigenvalue diagonal matrix.

Verify $\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{B}$

Then we can define $\dot{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$.

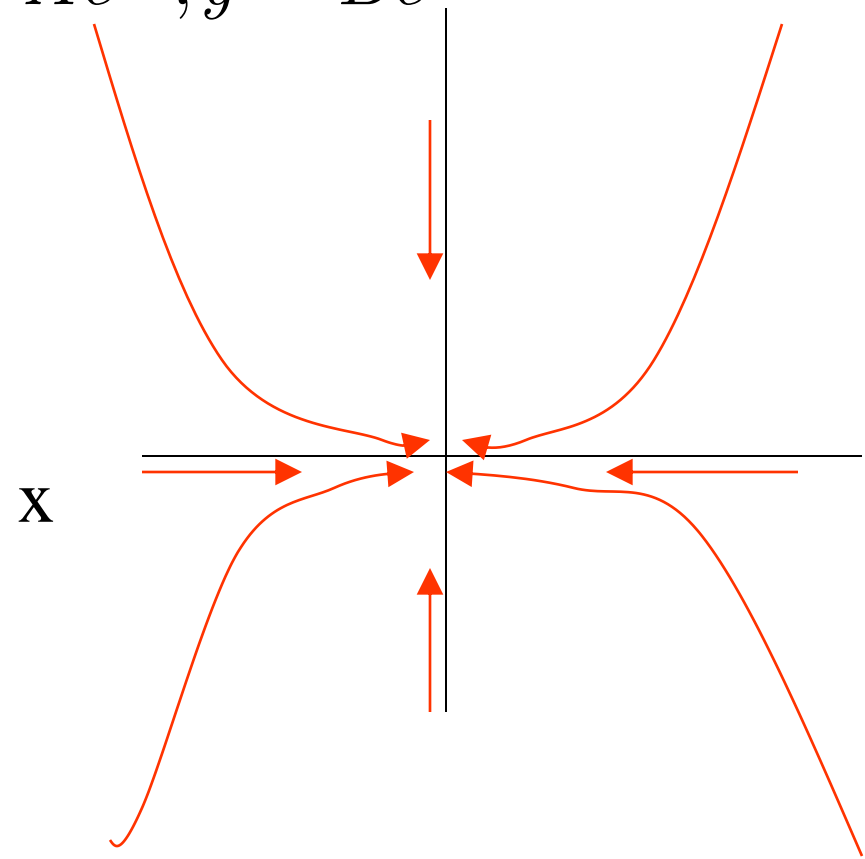
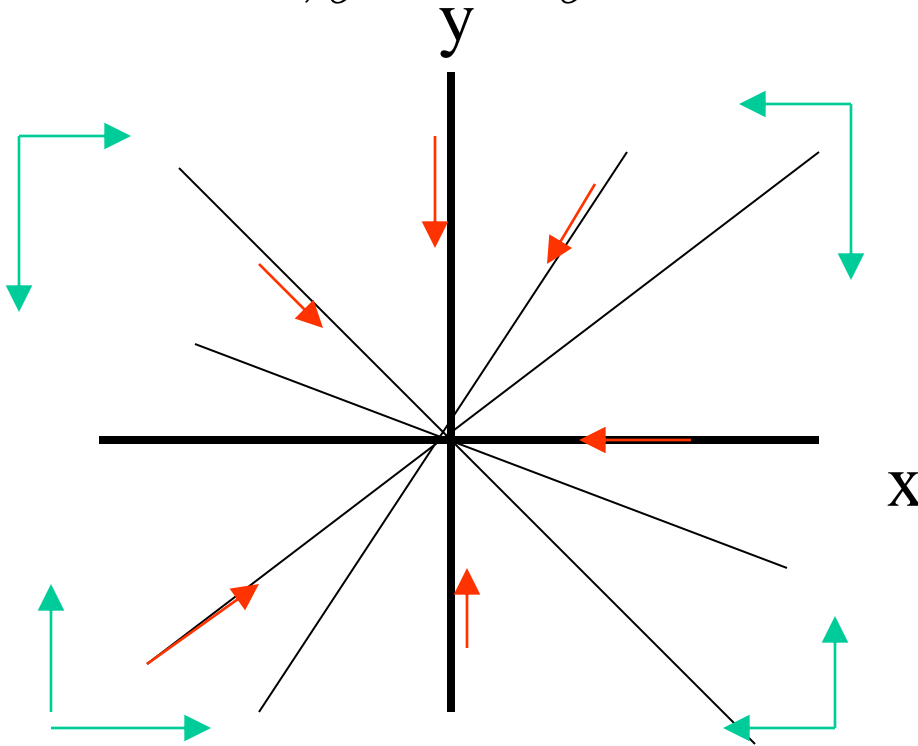
Alternative Behaviors around Equil.Points

B could take the following form:

- (a) a sink: both neg real, all solution curves converges.
- (b) a source: both pos real, diverges from the equil point.
- (c) a saddle: real with opposite signs.
- (d) a centre: both imaginary, all solution curves are periodic with the same period. The curves are ellipses, or circles.

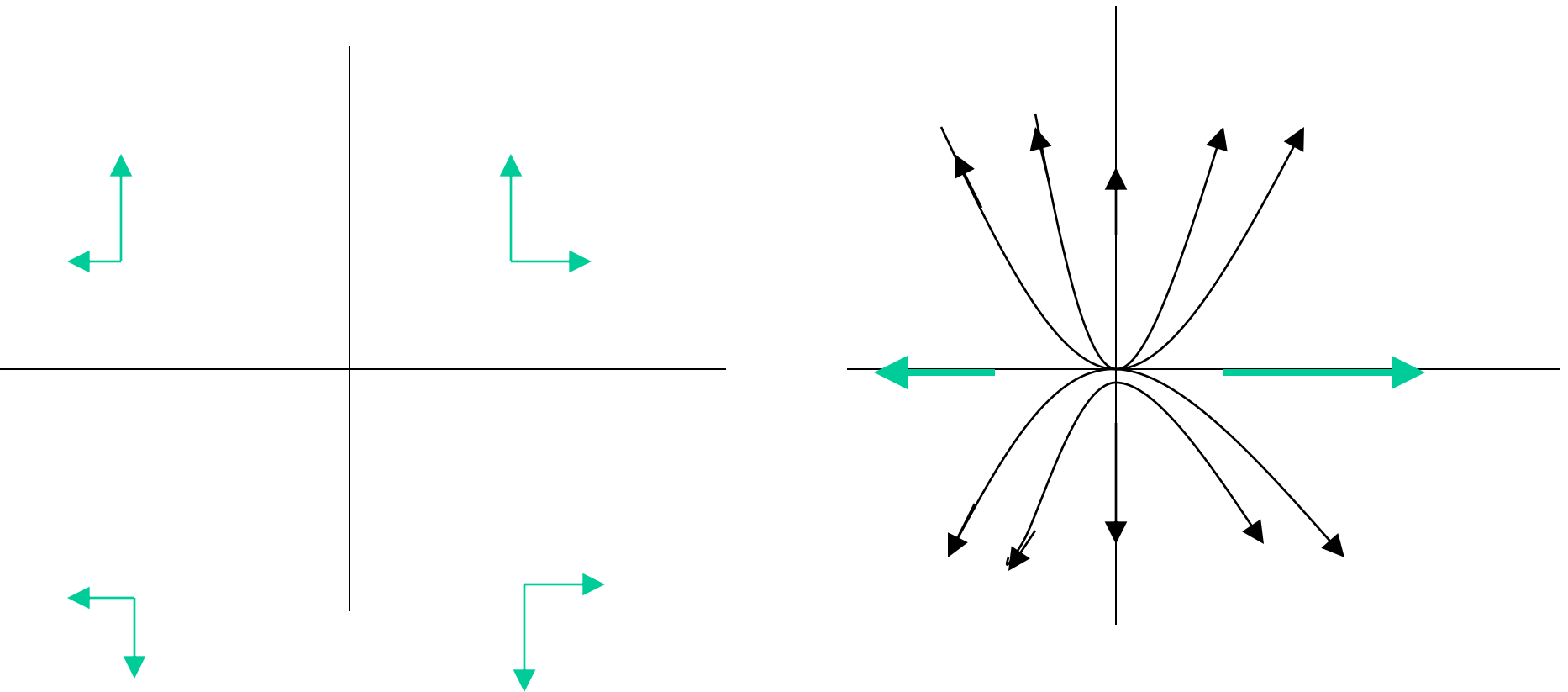
(a) $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ if both are negative real parts, a SINK :

Ex. $\dot{x} = -x, \dot{y} = -2y \Rightarrow x = Ae^{-t}, y = Be^{-2t}$



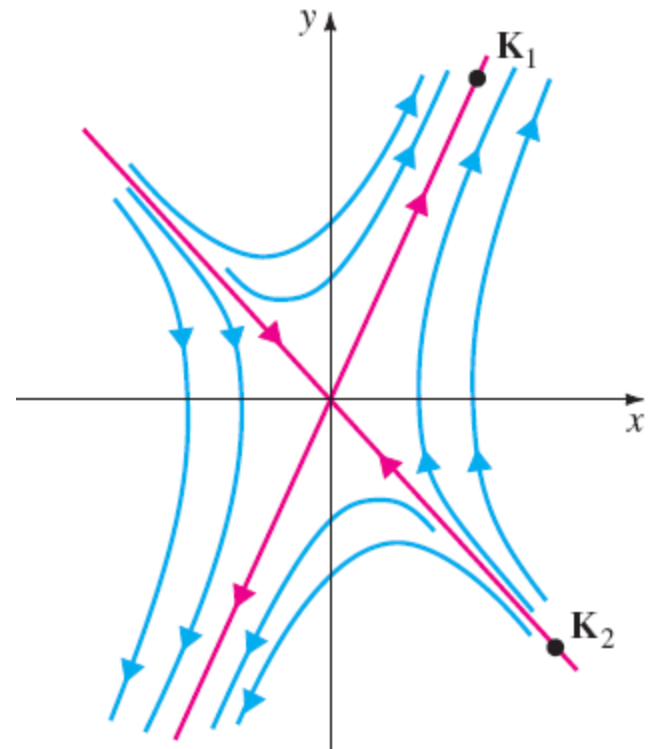
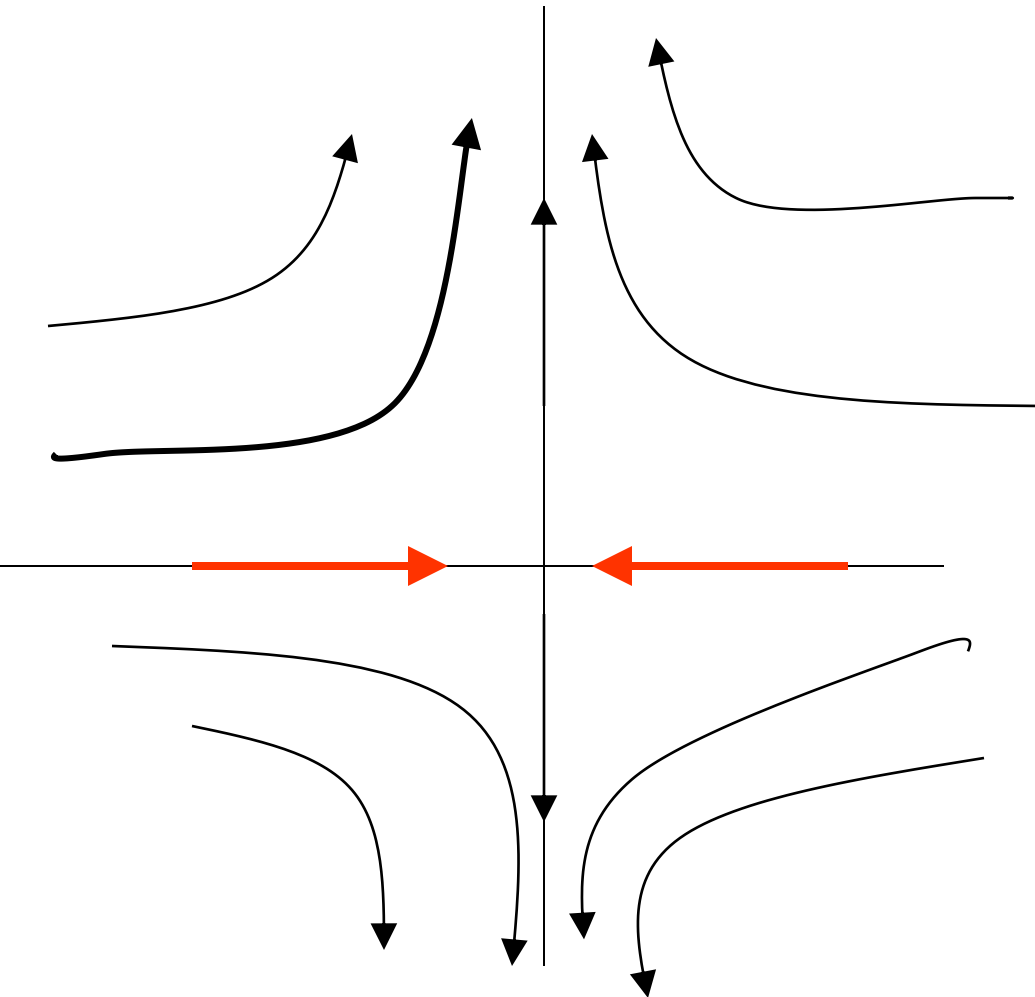
(b) $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ if both are pos real, a *SOURCE*

ex. $\dot{x} = x, \dot{y} = 2y \Rightarrow x = Ae^t, y = Be^{2t}$



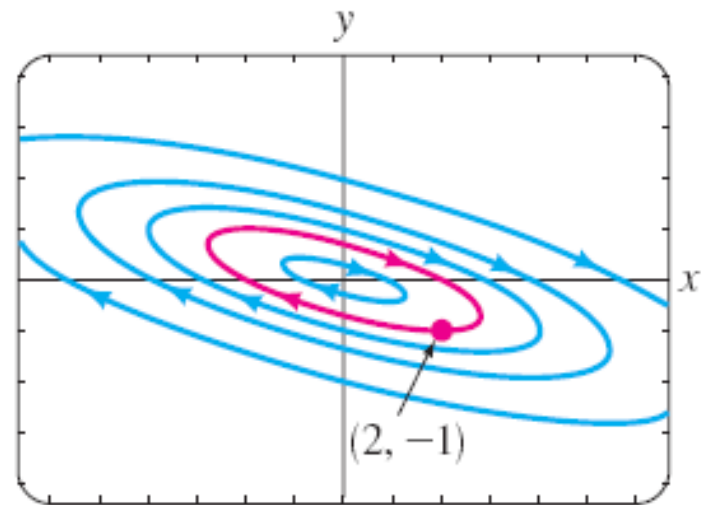
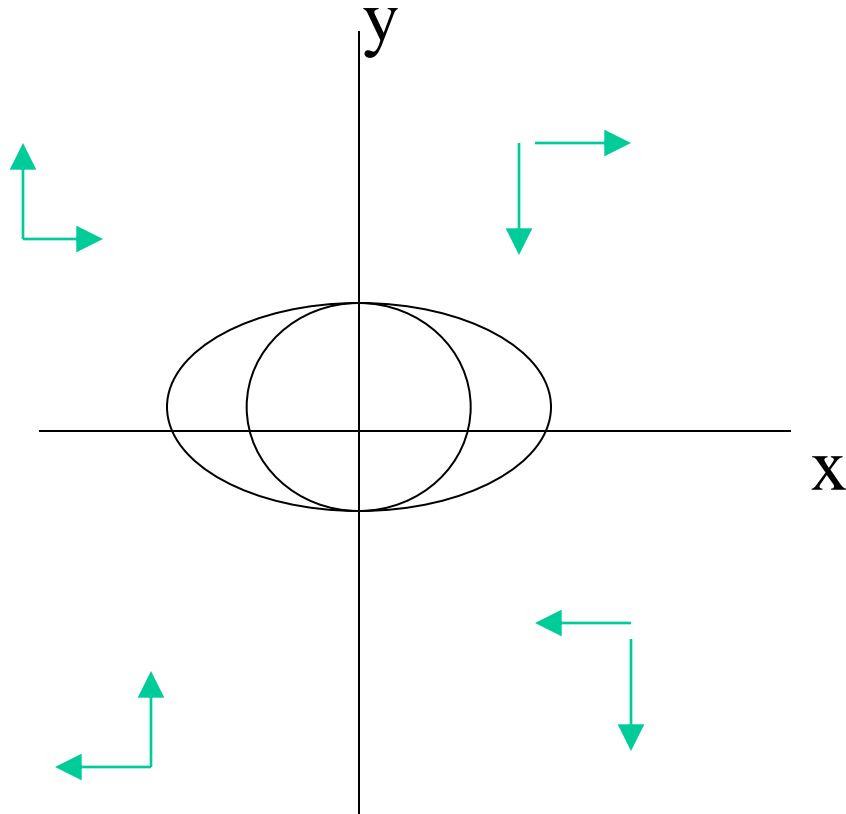
(c) if both are real with opposite sign, a SADDLE.

ex. $\dot{x} = -x, \dot{y} = y$, a stable branch is x - axis.

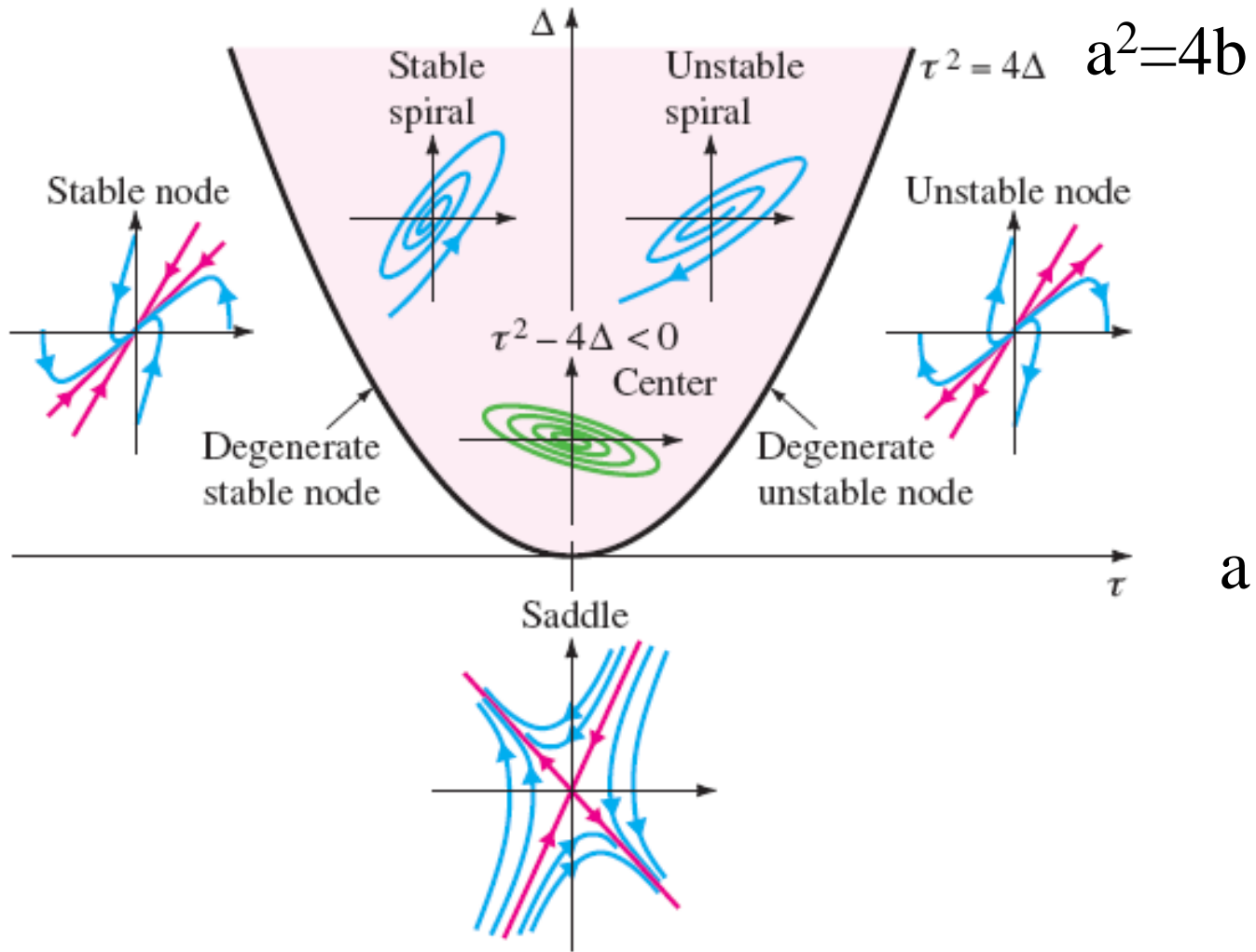


(d) if both are purely imaginary, a *CENTER*.

$$\text{ex. } \dot{x} = 4y, \dot{y} = -x \Rightarrow r = \pm 2i.$$



b



6.7 Phase Plane Analysis

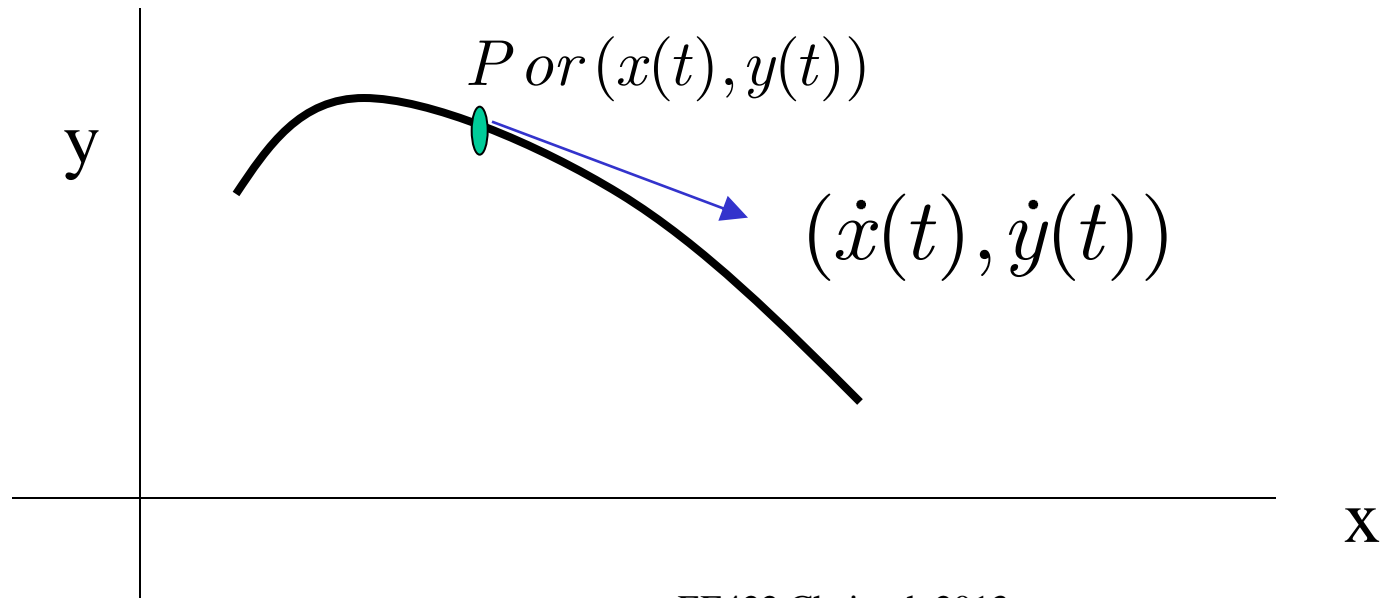
- When the explicit solutions are unavailable, we can find geometric arguments to shed light on the structure of the solutions of autonomous systems of differential equations.
- From topic 6.7, the autonomous system

$$\dot{x} = f(x, y)$$

$$\dot{y} = g(x, y)$$

- Solution $(x(t), y(t))$ describes a curve or path in x-y plane.
- Since \dot{x} is given by $f(\cdot)$ and \dot{y} by $g(\cdot)$, both not related to t . So, (\dot{x}, \dot{y}) is uniquely determined at the point $(x(t), y(t))$.

We can portrait the dynamics of the system by drawing a family of vectors, A Vector Field: We ask as t increases, how the system moves from the point $P=(x(t), y(t))$. Suppose $f(P) > 0$, $g(P) < 0$. This means that at P , x will increase and y will decrease. The direction is given by the tangent vector to the path at P , with speed given by the length of the vector.



Following the vector field and see if we can find a globally asymptotically stable point, all paths from this system tend to the equi. point.

A point (a,b) where $f(a,b)=g(a,b)=0$ is called an equilibrium point since $\dot{x}=\dot{y}=0$.

Next, we will show how to use the phase-plane diagram: partition regions where we know the direction of each variables, and see if certain equilibrium point is stable.

Drawing Phase Diagram:

First draw $\dot{x} = f(x, y) = 0$, and $\dot{y} = g(x, y) = 0$

On $\dot{x} = 0$, draw \uparrow if $\dot{y} > 0$, \downarrow if $\dot{y} < 0$.

(since x is not moved, we can find areas where y rises, and y falls)

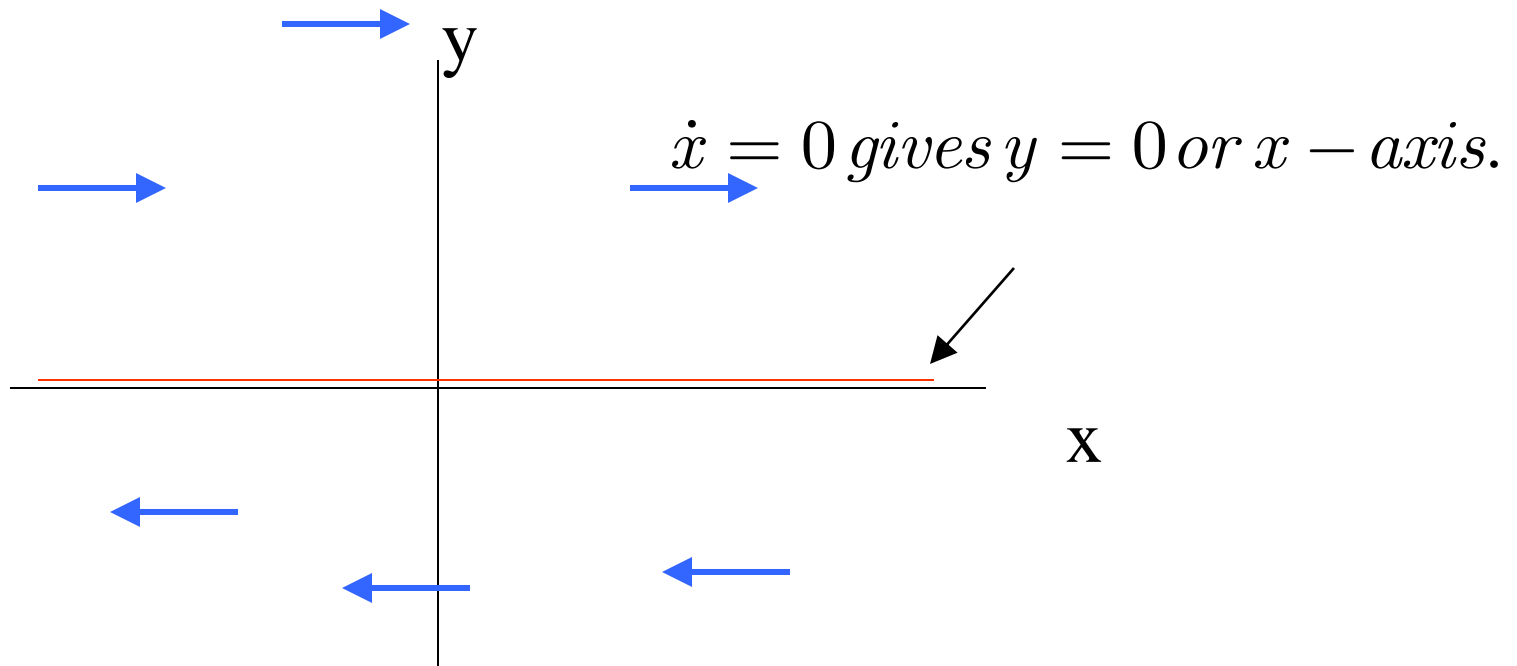
On $\dot{y} = 0$, draw \rightarrow if $\dot{x} > 0$, \leftarrow if $\dot{x} < 0$.

(since y is not moved, we find areas where x rises, and x falls).

From $\dot{x}, \dot{y} = 0$, we form 4 areas.

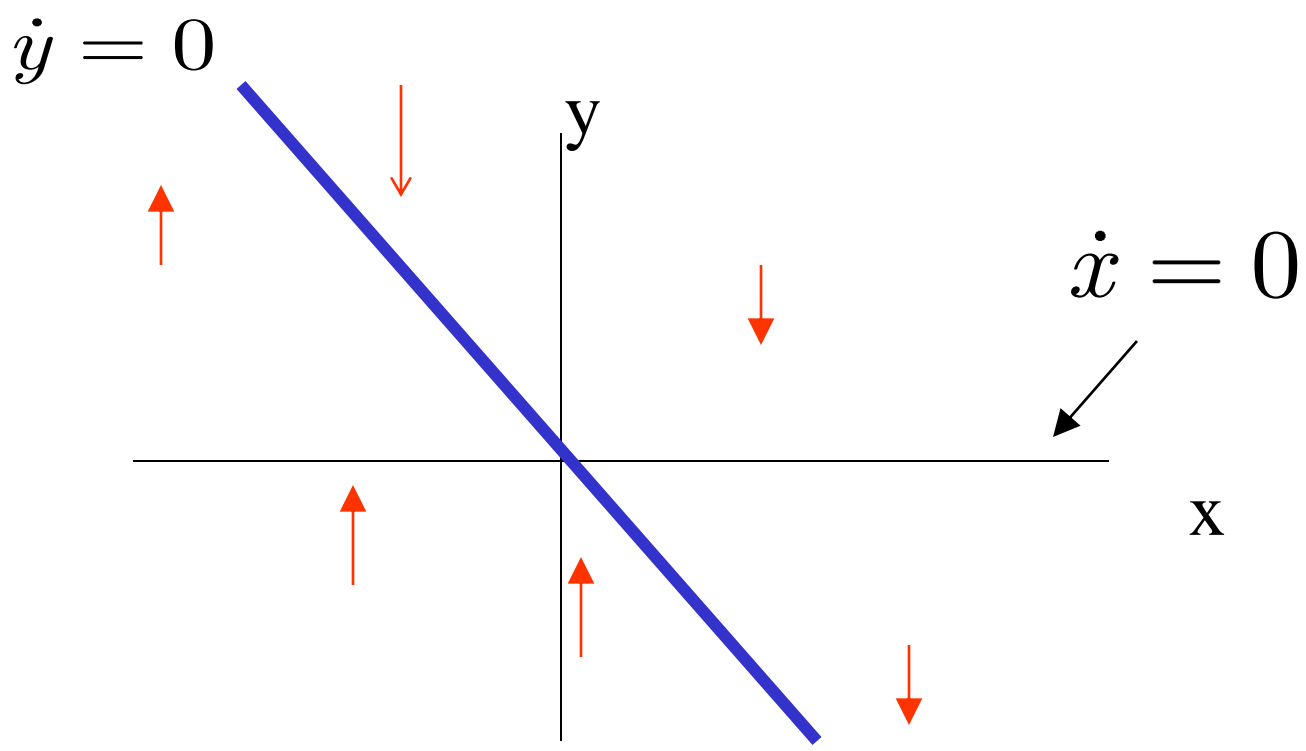
$$\text{Ex. } \dot{x} = y, \dot{y} = -2x - y;$$

In areas (I), (II), $y > 0$, so $\dot{x} > 0$; In areas (III), (IV), $y < 0$, so $\dot{x} < 0$;



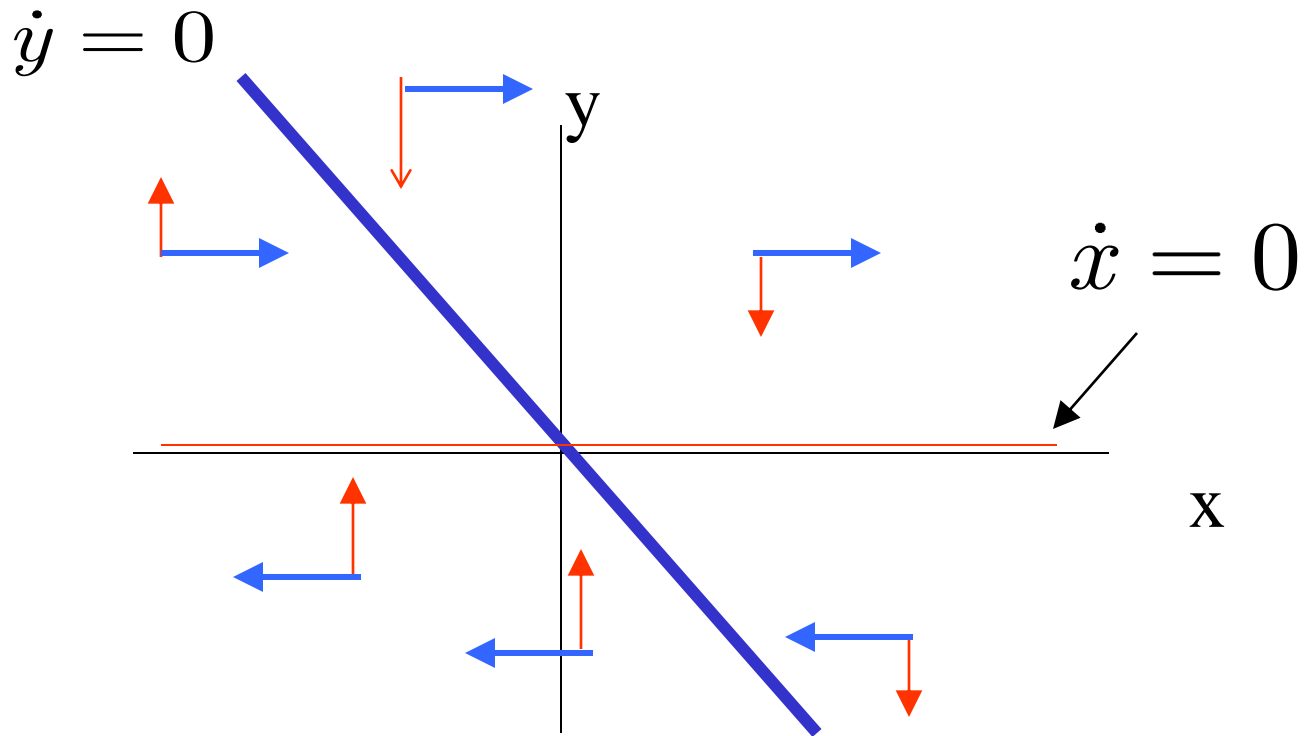
Ex. $\dot{x} = y, \dot{y} = -2x - y;$

When $\dot{y} = 0$, we get $y = -2x$. Right area of $\dot{y} = 0$ or the linear line is $\dot{y} < 0$.



Ex. $\dot{x} = y, \dot{y} = -2x - y;$

Connect all arrows together.



Ex2. Growth Model

$$\dot{K} = aK - bK^2 - C;$$

$$\dot{C} = w(a - 2bK)C.$$

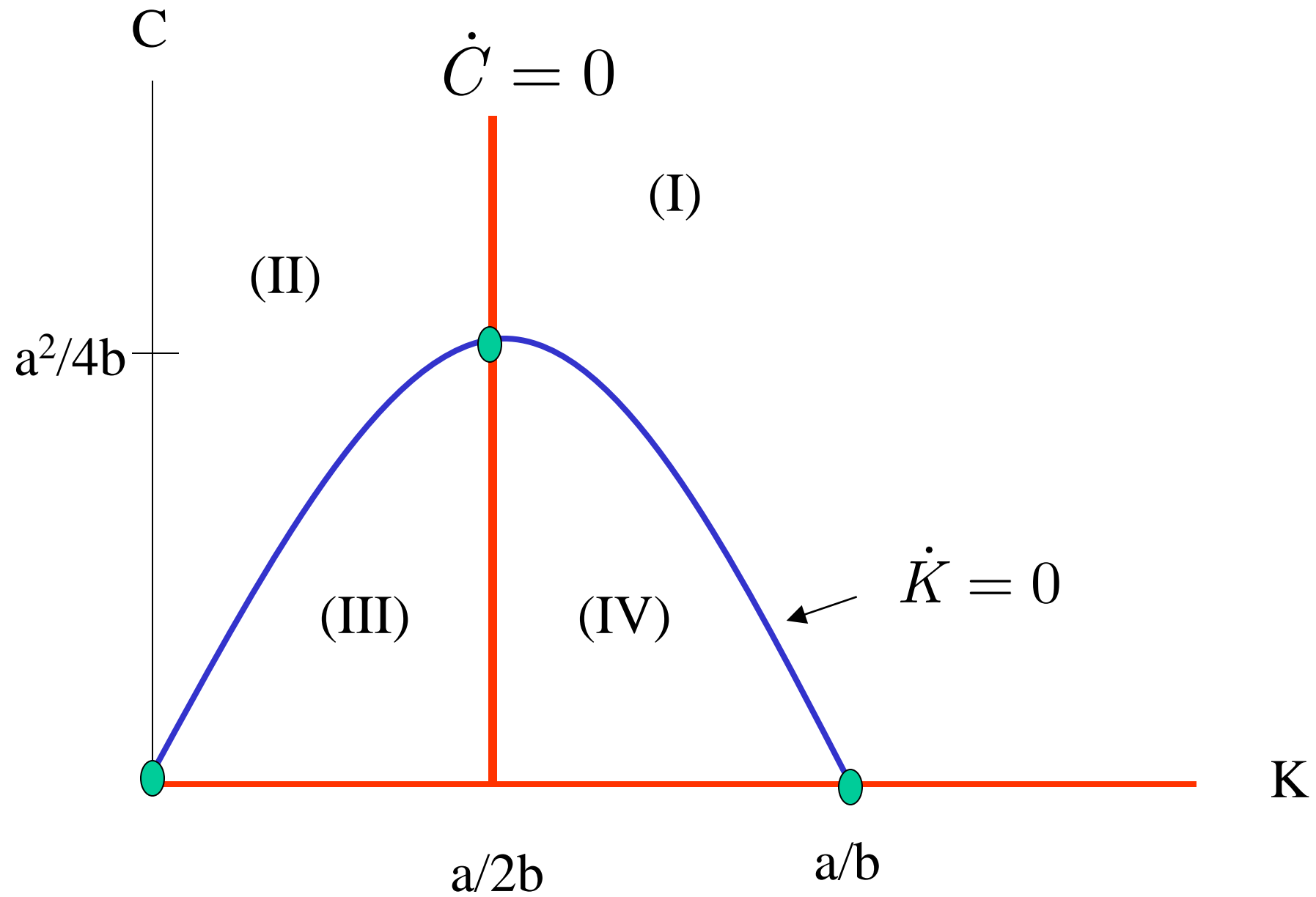
Assume $K \geq 0$, $C \geq 0$.

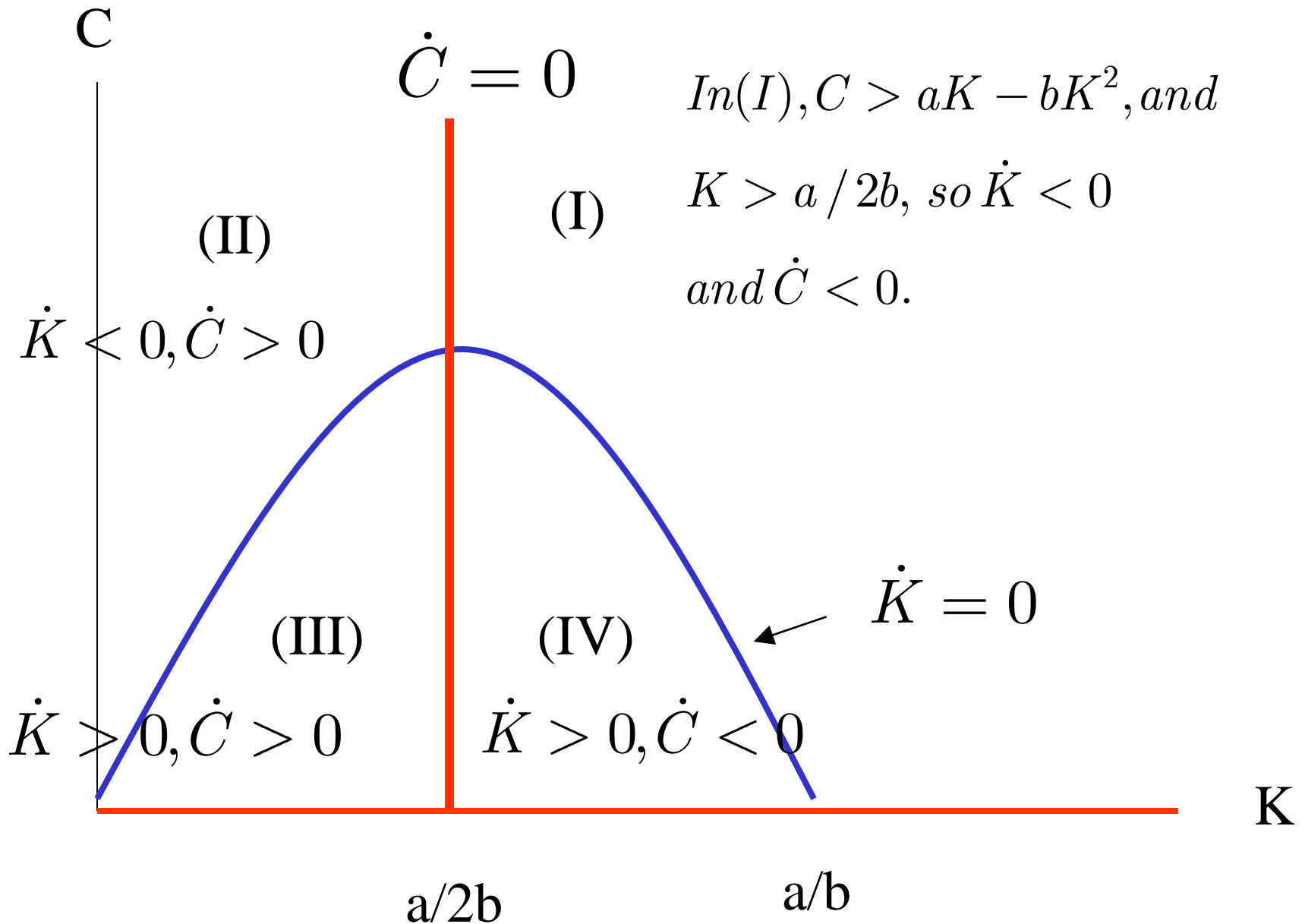
First, draw the line $\dot{K} = 0$ (the blue line where

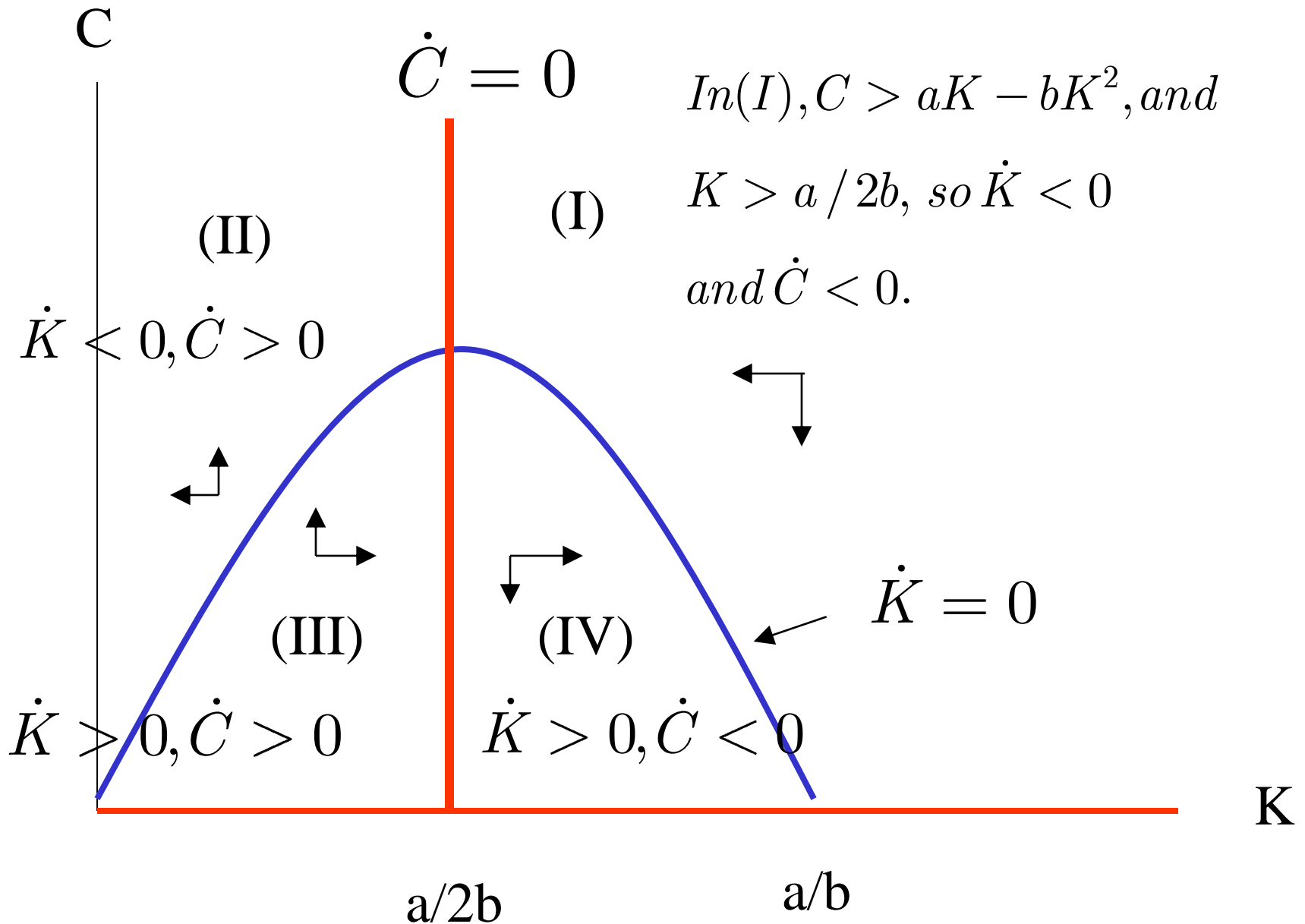
$C = aK - bK^2$), and the lines $\dot{C} = 0$ (two reds lines

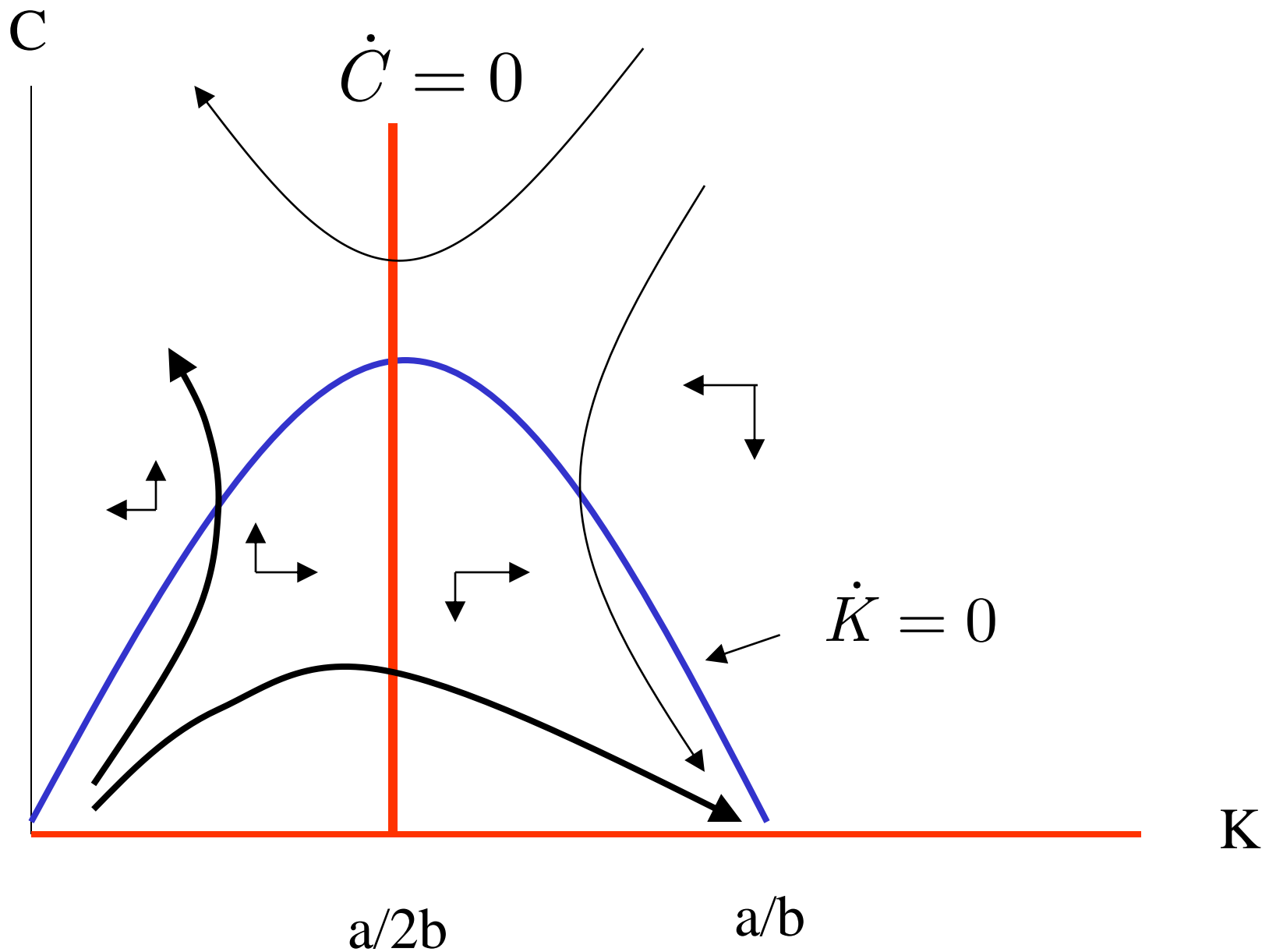
$C = 0$, and $K = a / 2b$.)

Three equilibrium points where two lines intersect.









$$\text{ex. } \dot{x} = -x + 2y - 1$$

$$\dot{y} = -3x - 8y + 25$$

We can find equilibrium at (3, 2)

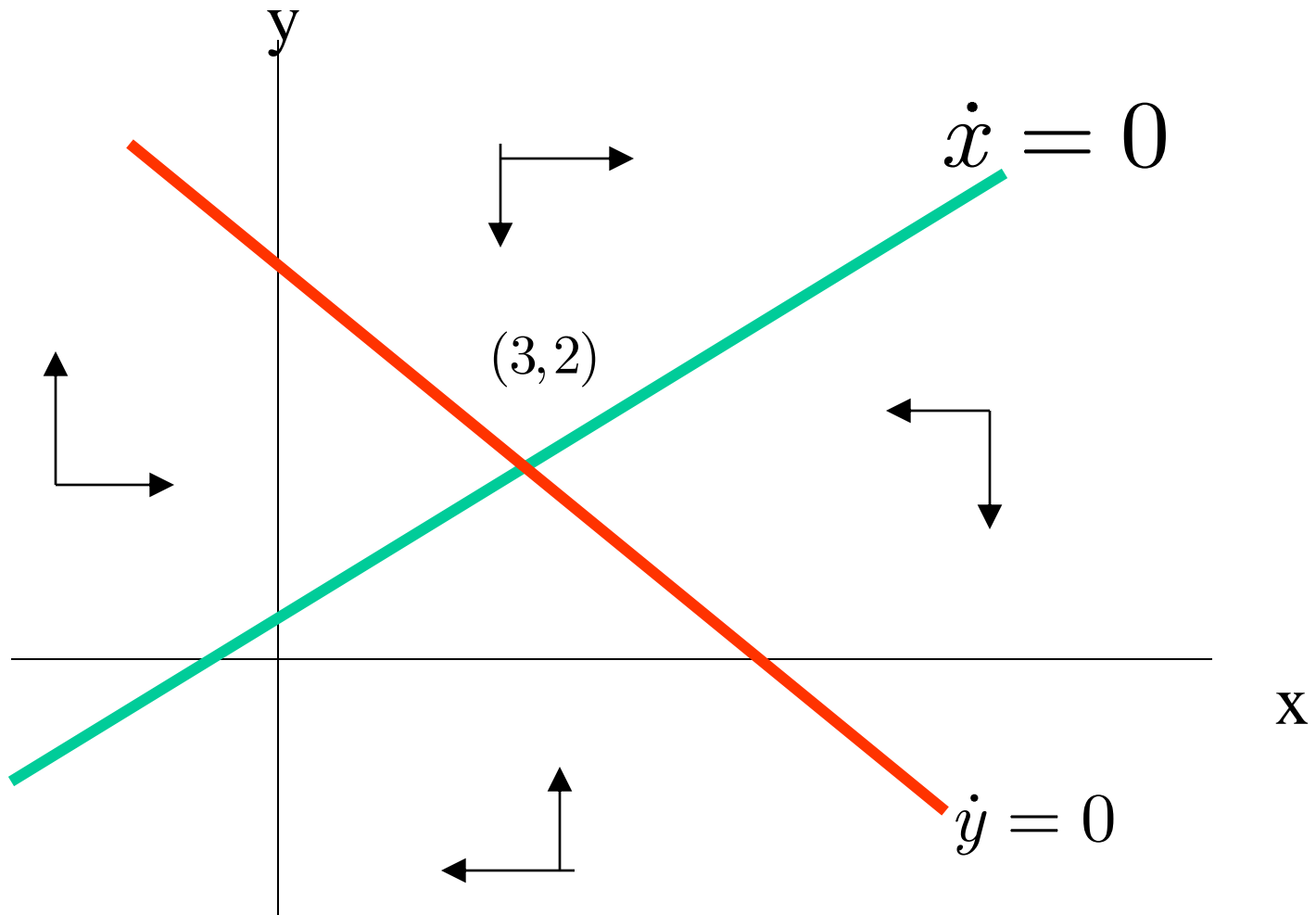
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -3 & -8 \end{bmatrix}; |A - \lambda I| = (-1 - \lambda)(-8 - \lambda) + 6 = 0$$

$\lambda_1 = -2$, and the corresponding eigenvector

are $AX = -2X$ yield $-x + 2y = -2x$ or $x = -2y$

and $\lambda_2 = -7$, yield $y = -3x$. Thus the solution

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = Ae^{-2t} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + Be^{-7t} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$



6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

We discuss stability of the autonomous system.

An equi. point (a, b) is locally asym. stable if any path starting near (a, b) tends to (a, b) as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

An equi. point (a, b) is globally asym. stable if any solution converge to (a, b) as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

To see if (a, b) is locally asym. stable, we examine how solutions behave in a neighborhood of (a, b) by approximating f and g about (a, b) .

6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

$$f(x, y) \underset{=0}{\simeq} f(a, b) + f_1'(a, b)(x - a) + f_2'(a, b)(y - b)$$

$$g(x, y) \underset{=0}{\simeq} g(a, b) + g_1'(a, b)(x - a) + g_2'(a, b)(y - b)$$

becomes (use $f(a, b) = 0$ to get b_1 ; $g(a, b) = 0$ to get b_2)

$$\dot{x} = f(x, y) = f_1'(a, b)x + f_2'(a, b)y + b_1$$

$$\dot{y} = g(x, y) = g_1'(a, b)x + g_2'(a, b)y + b_2$$

around (a, b) , this system behaves like the linear

6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

$$\dot{x} = f(x, y) = f_1'(a, b)x + f_2'(a, b)y + b_1$$

$$\dot{y} = g(x, y) = g_1'(a, b)x + g_2'(a, b)y + b_2$$

From theorem 6.1, this linear system is globally asym. stable iff the eigenvalues of the matrix A both have negative real parts.

Equivalently, iff A has negative trace ($\lambda_1 + \lambda_2$) and positive determinant ($\lambda_1 \lambda_2$).

Theorem 6.8.1 Lyapunov Stability

The system is **locally** asy. stable at (a, b) iff the eigenvalues of matrix A have both neg. real parts. Equivalently iff $trA < 0$, and $|A| > 0$, where the Jacobian matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} f'_1(a, b) & f'_2(a, b) \\ g'_1(a, b) & g'_2(a, b) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Limiting behavior of nonlinear sytem near equil. point is similar to that of the linearlized system.

6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

$$\text{Ex. } \dot{x} = -3x - 2y + 8x^2 + y^3$$

$$\dot{y} = 3x + y - 3x^2y^2 + y^4$$

check if $(0,0)$ equil. is locally asym stable.

$$\text{find } f_1'(0,0) = -3, \quad f_2'(0,0) = -2$$

$$g_1'(0,0) = 3, \quad g_2'(0,0) = 1.$$

$$\text{tr}A = -3 + 1 = -2 < 0$$

$$\det A = -3 - (-6) = 3 > 0$$

6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

Ex. (population and growth)

$$\dot{K} = sK^{1-\alpha} - \delta K = K(sK^{\alpha-1} - \delta)$$

$$\dot{P} = K^\beta - \gamma P \quad \text{where } \beta > 1$$

where P is stock of pollution, decay with γ . Check

$$(1) A = \begin{bmatrix} \delta(\alpha - 1) & 0 \\ \beta \left(\frac{\delta}{s}\right)^{\frac{\beta-1}{\alpha-1}} & -\gamma \end{bmatrix} \quad (2) \text{tr}A < 0, |A| > 0$$

$$(3) \lambda_1 = \delta(\alpha - 1), \lambda_2 = -\gamma.$$

6.8 Stability for Nonlinear System

We skip the theorem for globally stability of an autonomous system of differential equations in the plane. See Olech's theorem in p. 251 in which we require to check for the whole domain in \mathbb{R}^2 , not just only at the equilibrium point.

6.9 Saddle Points

Many dynamic economic models have equilibria that are not asymptotically stable.

In some cases a different type of behavior near equilibrium is seen.

Two paths approach the equilibrium points from opposite direction as t goes to infinity, while all other paths move away from the equilibrium point.

This is called “Local Saddle Point Equilibrium”

6.9 Saddle Points

Thm 6.9.1 Local Saddle Point

Suppose f and g are C^1 functions, (a, b) be equilibrium of the system $\dot{x} = f(x, y)$ and $\dot{y} = g(x, y)$

Let A be Jacobian matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} f'_1(a, b) & f'_2(a, b) \\ g'_1(a, b) & g'_2(a, b) \end{bmatrix}.$$

If eigenvalues of A are nonzero real with opposite signs, or, equivalently $\det A < 0$.

Such equilibrium is saddle point.

6.9 Saddle Points

Thm 6.9.1 Local Saddle Point

For any starting point t_0 , there exist exactly two solution paths $(x_1(t), y_1(t))$ and $(x_2(t), y_2(t))$ that converge toward (a, b) from opposite directions in the phase-plane.

6.9 Saddle Points

Note

The characteristic equation of A is

$$r^2 - \text{tr}(A)r + \det(A) = 0.$$

The quadratic equation $r^2 + ar + b = 0$

has two roots, $r_{1,2} = -\frac{a}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{a^2 - 4b}$.

If $b < 0$, both roots are real, also $r_1 r_2 = b < 0$,

so the roots are of opposite signs.

If r_1 and r_2 are real and opposite signs,

then $b = r_1 r_2 < 0$.

6.9 Saddle Points

Ex. Growth Model (see section 6.7)

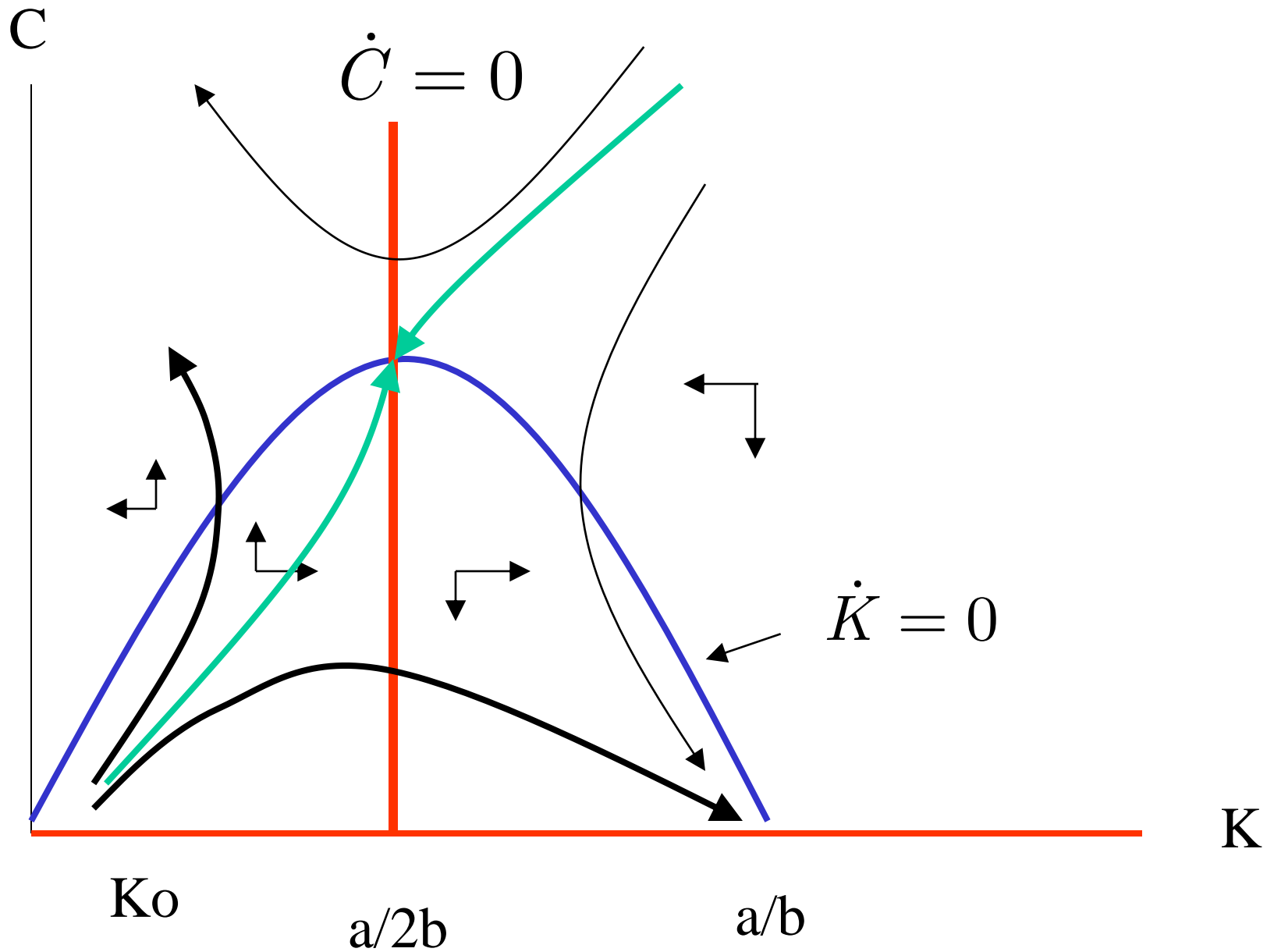
$$\dot{K} = aK - bK^2 - C$$

and $\dot{C} = w(a - 2bK)C$

One equil. point is $(K^*, c^*) = (a / 2b, a^2 / 4b)$

Check if $\det A$ at this point < 0 .

If so, such equilibrium is saddle point.



ex. Check the equil property of the following system

$$\dot{x} = 2y$$

$$\dot{y} = 3x - y$$

We can find equilibrim at (0, 0)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}; \det(A) = -6$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = (0 - \lambda)(-1 - \lambda) - 6 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 + \lambda + 6 = 0 \Rightarrow (\lambda - 2)(\lambda + 3)$$

For $\lambda_2 = -3$, yield associated eigenvector $\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

