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# **Linear algebra and stability in dynamical systems**

**SFI - CSSS**

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# Diagonalising matrices

A matrix is a linear operator mapping a vector space onto another vector space (or itself).

$$\mathbf{v} \rightarrow \mathbf{w} = M\mathbf{v}$$

A square non-singular matrix can be viewed as a change of coordinates (rotation and scaling) in a vector space. Such a change of coordinates (defined by a matrix  $M$ ) affects vectors ( $\mathbf{v}$ ) and matrices ( $A$ ) as:

$$\mathbf{v} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbf{v}} = M\mathbf{v}$$

$$A \rightarrow \tilde{A} = MAM^{-1} \quad (\text{similarity transformation})$$

Which can be understood e.g. by considering the linear equation:

$$\mathbf{u} = A\mathbf{v}$$

$$M\mathbf{u} = MA\mathbf{v} = MAM^{-1}M\mathbf{v}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{u}} = \tilde{A}\tilde{\mathbf{v}}$$

# Diagonalising matrices, cont.

Typically, there exists a similarity transformation  $T$  such that:

$$A \rightarrow TAT^{-1} = D$$

where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix. What is the structure of  $T$ ?

Recall eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{v}_i \quad \text{right eigenvectors}$$

$$\mathbf{u}_i^T A = \lambda_i\mathbf{u}_i^T \quad \text{left eigenvectors}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{u}_i \quad \text{for symmetric matrices}$$

$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0$  if  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$  (calculate  $\mathbf{u}_i^T A\mathbf{v}_j$  in two different ways...)



# Comment on exceptions

There are matrices that cannot be diagonalised. For example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 1 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$$

which has eigenvalue  $a$  but only one eigenvector and cannot be diagonalised. It is an example of a Jordan form, which can be generalised. However, these matrices are singular exceptions because

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 1 \\ 0 & a + \epsilon \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } \epsilon \neq 0$$

can be diagonalised, but the eigenvectors are close to linearly dependent as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

# Linear dynamical systems

Consider  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$

Diagonalise  $A$  by the change of variables  $\mathbf{y} = T\mathbf{x}$

$$\dot{\mathbf{y}} = T\dot{\mathbf{x}} = T A \mathbf{x} = T A T^{-1} T \mathbf{x} = D \mathbf{y} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{y}_i &= \lambda_i y_i \Rightarrow \\ y_i &= c_i \exp(\lambda_i t) \end{aligned}$$

i.e. 
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \exp(\lambda_1 t) \\ c_2 \exp(\lambda_2 t) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$c_i$  determined by initial conditions:  $\sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{x}(0)$

$$\mathbf{x} = T^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & \dots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \dots \\ | & | & \dots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \exp(\lambda_1 t) \\ c_2 \exp(\lambda_2 t) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}_i \exp(\lambda_i t)$$

# Stability

So, it follows that the dynamical system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$$

has the solution

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}_i \exp(\lambda_i t)$$

time scales



and therefore

$\mathbf{x} \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  if the real part of  $\lambda_i$  are negative for all eigenvalues

Intuitively we may say that the system is stable since, if it is at its fixed point and there is a perturbation, the deviation will decay exponentially and the system will return to its resting state.

**BUT WE NEED TO BE CAREFUL HERE!!!**

# A complication

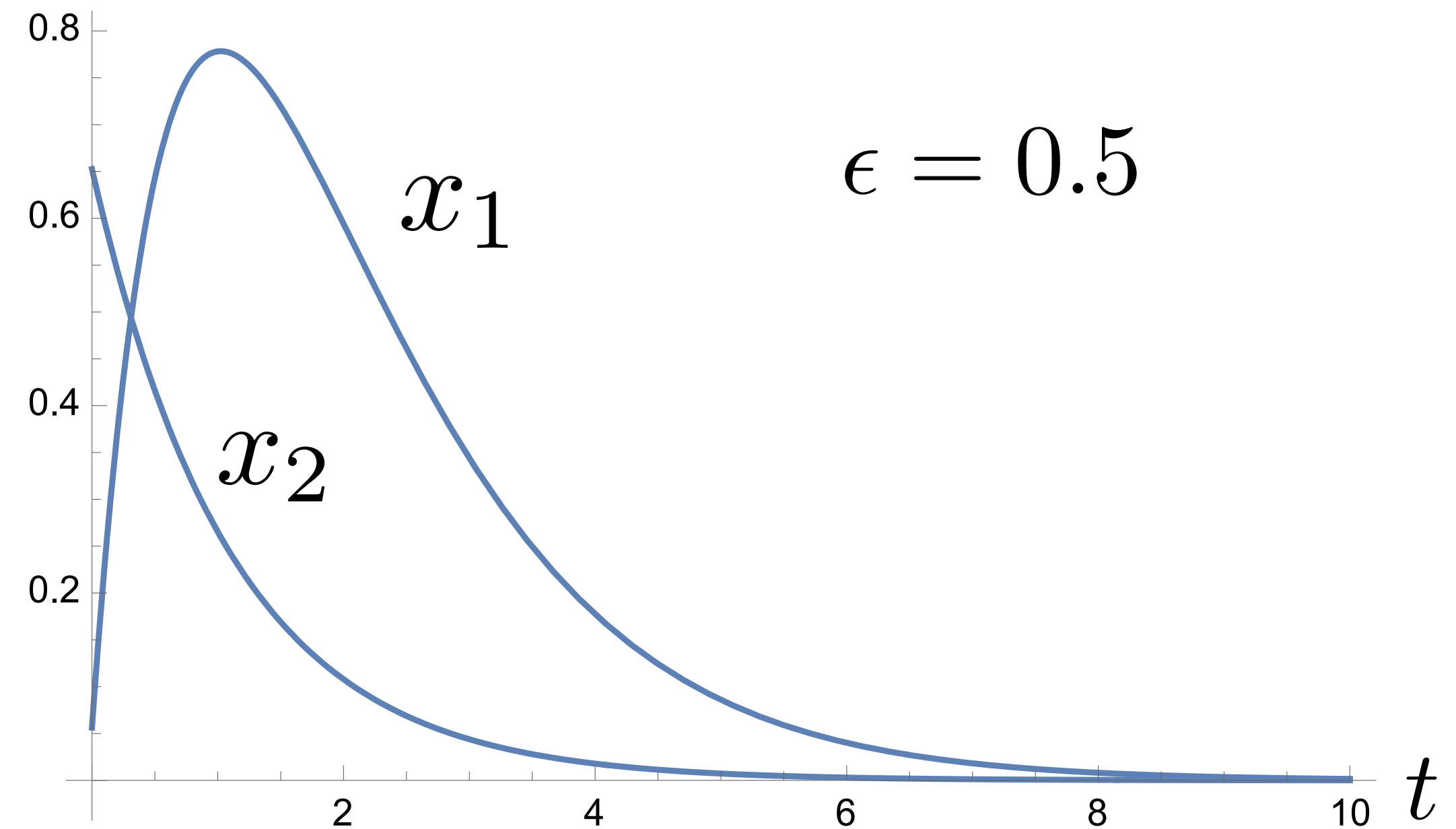
Consider

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 + \epsilon \end{pmatrix}$$

with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 = -1 \quad \lambda_2 = -1 + \epsilon$$

clearly, if  $\epsilon$  is small, both eigenvalues have negative real part.



So, while it is true that the system converges to zero given enough time, there can be large deviations before this happens...

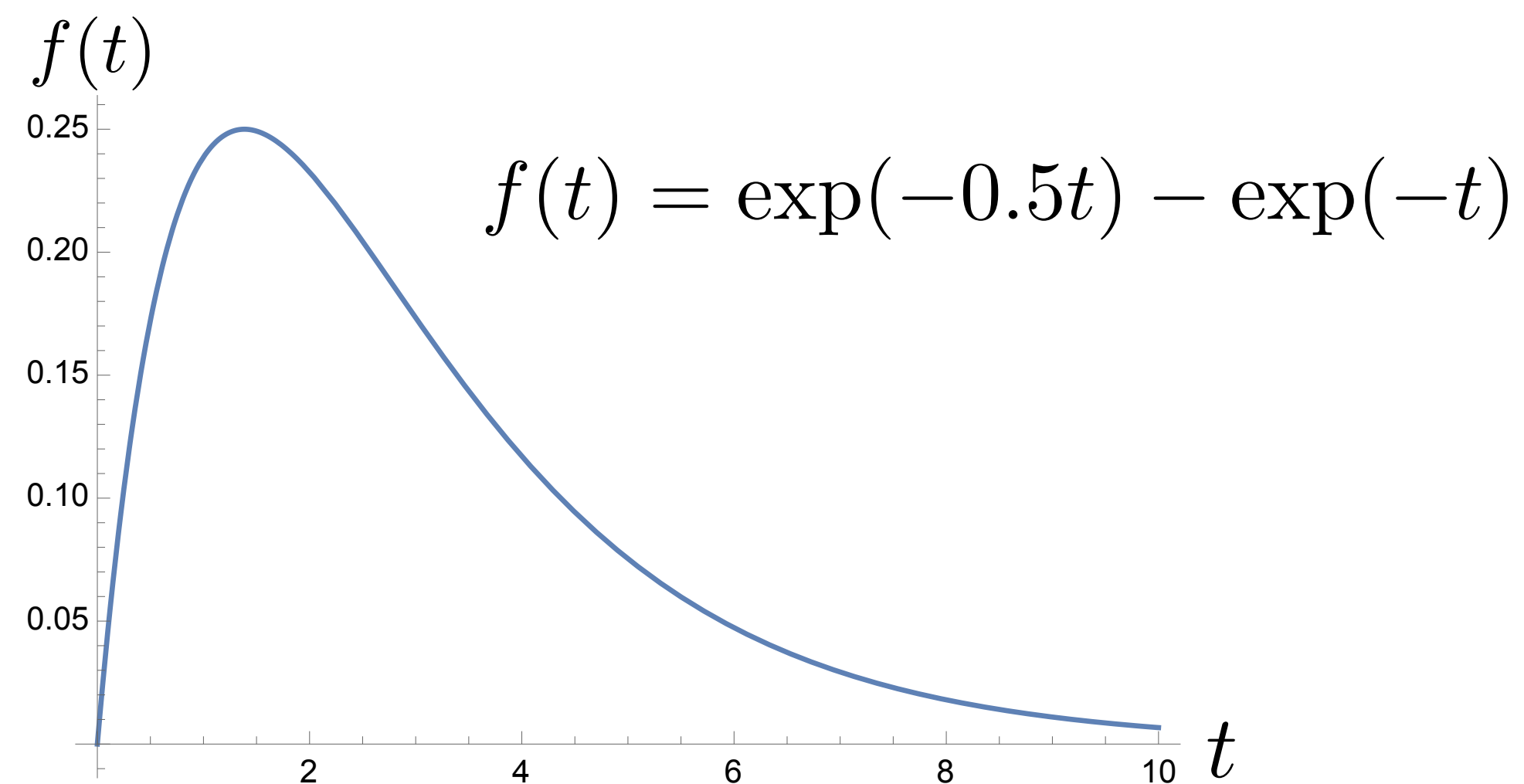


# Why does this happen?

The answer is actually very simple. The solution is a sum of exponentials

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}_i \exp(\lambda_i t)$$

But even if every eigenvalue is negative, so the amplitude of each term shrinks, the sum can still grow because the terms can have “different signs” and cancel at  $t=0$ . As an illustration, look at



# Why it matters

Linear systems are often used to understand the (local) behaviour of non-linear systems. Consider

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ where } f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } f(\mathbf{x}_0) = 0$$

If the system is close to its fixed point and  $f$  is “smooth enough”, then we can linearise the equations and study the local behaviour through

$$\dot{\delta \mathbf{x}} = J_{\mathbf{x}_0} \delta \mathbf{x} + \mathcal{O}(\delta x^2) \text{ where } J_{\mathbf{x}_0} = \left. \frac{\partial f_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}_0} \quad \delta \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0$$

**Jacobian**  
↙

So, the stability of a fixed point in a non-linear system can be studied through the linearised equations defined by the Jacobian of the system at the fixed point. But then, **large deviations can be very problematic since the linearisation itself may break down...**

# Stability in linear systems revisited

Consider (again)  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$

We would like a condition that ensures deviations to decay monotonically with time, i.e.

$$\frac{d(\overset{\text{deviation}}{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}})}{dt} < 0 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \boxed{\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} < 0}$$

Since  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$  is a number,  $\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x})^T = \mathbf{x}^T A^T \mathbf{x} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T (A + A^T) \mathbf{x} \stackrel{\text{defining } A^s}{=} \mathbf{x}^T A^s \mathbf{x}$

Let  $\mathbf{v}_i$  be eigenvectors of  $A^s$ , which are orthogonal since  $A^s$  is symmetric.  $A^s \mathbf{v}_i = \mu_i \mathbf{v}_i$

Let  $\mathbf{x} = \sum_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i$ , then

Symmetry  $\rightarrow \mu_i$  and  $a_i$  are real

$$\mathbf{x}^T A^s \mathbf{x} = \left( \sum_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \right) A^s \left( \sum_j a_j \mathbf{v}_j \right) = \left( \sum_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \right) \left( \sum_j \mu_j a_j \mathbf{v}_j \right) = \sum_i \mu_i a_i^2 < 0 \text{ if } \mu_i < 0$$

# Stability in linear systems conclusion

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$$

If all eigenvalues of  $A$  has negative real part, the system will eventually converge to the fixed point at zero, but deviations from zero may increase before it starts converging.

If all eigenvalues of  $A^s = (A + A^T)/2$  are negative (they are real since  $A^s$  is symmetric, any deviation measured as  $\sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$  will monotonically decrease with time. In this case  $A$  is said to be negative definite.

**Note that if the matrix is symmetric in the first place, the first situation includes the second.**

# Re-visit our example

Consider

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 + \epsilon \end{pmatrix} \quad \epsilon < 1$$

with eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 = -1 \quad \lambda_2 = -1 + \epsilon \quad \leftarrow \text{both negative}$$

but

$$Q = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} \text{ can be } \underline{\text{positive}}, \text{ e.g. } x = (1, 1) \Rightarrow Q = 1 + \epsilon > 0$$

For  $\epsilon = 0.5$ ,  $A^s$  has eigenvalues (approx.)  $-4.54$  and  $1.54$ , showing that the system can have non-decreasing deviations.

# Fixed point stability and Lyapunov functions

In general it is often hard to prove that a dynamical system has a fixed point that will attract trajectories in some region. One method often used to approach this problem is to try to construct a so called Lyapunov function. Here is the idea. Consider the dynamical system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ where } f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } f(\mathbf{0}) = 0$$

Construct a smooth scalar function  $V(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that decrease with time:

$$\dot{V} = \nabla V(\mathbf{x}) \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$$

when  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . The function  $V$  is called a Lyapunov function.

**If there exist a Lyapunov function, then  $\mathbf{0}$  is a (locally) stable fixed point.**

Example:  $V(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}$  is a Lyapunov function for a linear system iff  $A$  is negative definite, because then  $\frac{d}{dt} V(\mathbf{x}) < 0$ .



# May's argument

**A complex systems with interacting agents (e.g. an ecosystem) can be described by a dynamical system. Consider a stationary state (a fixed point of that system), then the Jacobian looks like**

$$J = \sigma A - I$$

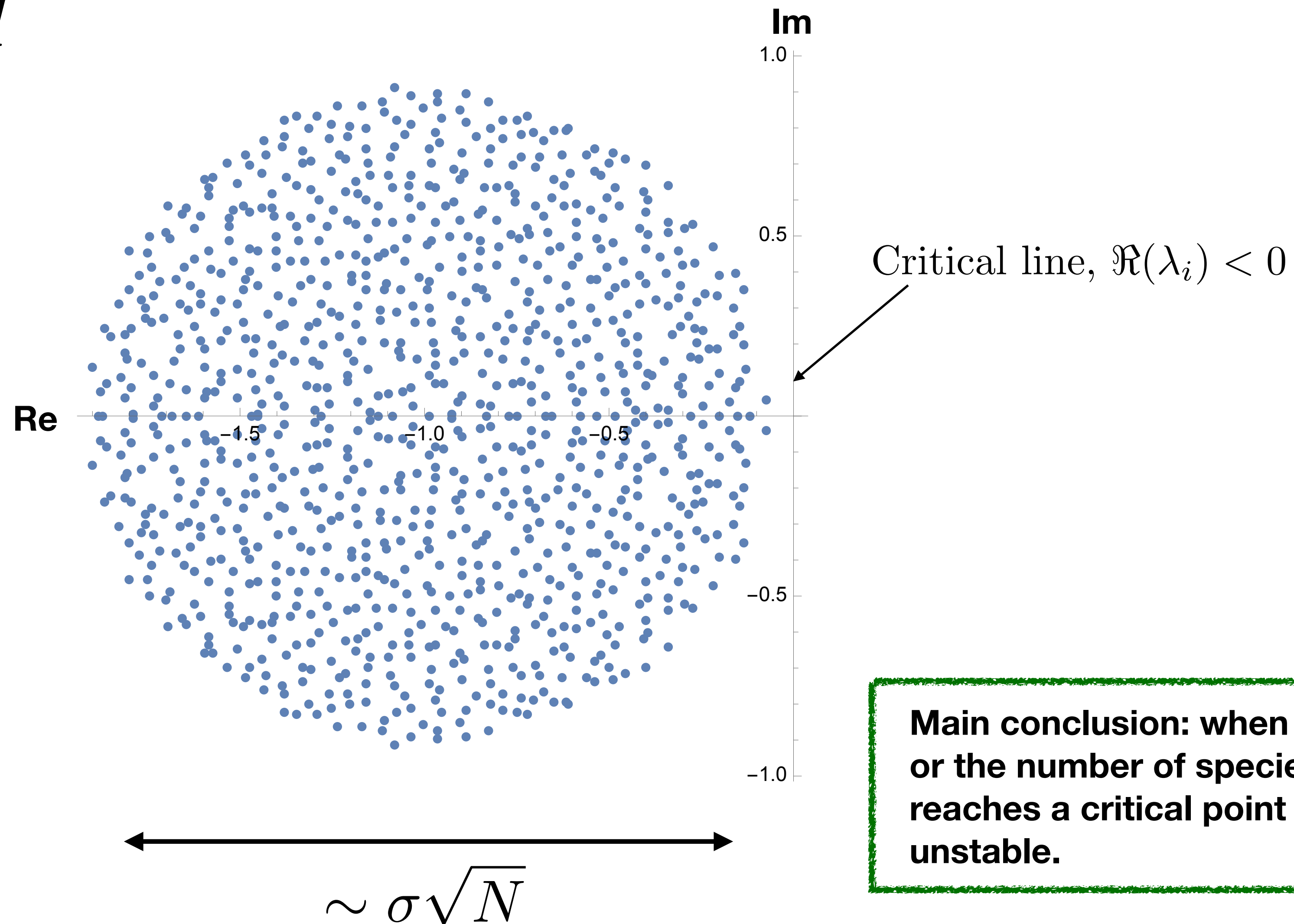
where  $A_{ij}$  describes the interaction between species  $i$  and  $j$  and  $\sigma$  is a parameter that can tune the interaction strength. The identity matrix  $I$  ensures that the system is stable in the absence of interactions.

**May's main idea was to look at the eigenvalues (spectrum) of the Jacobian and determine if the system was stable or not (all eigenvalues have negative real parts). As a model he assumed random interactions and could then use random matrix theory to estimate the spectral radius of  $A$  and thereby also the Jacobian.**



# Example of a spectrum

$$J = \sigma A - I$$



**Main conclusion: when the interaction strength or the number of species increase, the system reaches a critical point and then becomes unstable.**

# Generalized Lotka-Volterra

$$\dot{x}_i = x_i(1 - x_i) + \sigma \sum_j A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Self-regulation

Interaction

Fixed points:

$$x_i(1 - x_i + \sigma \sum_j A_{ij} x_j) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_i^* = 0 \\ x_i^* = 1 + \sigma \sum_j A_{ij} x_j^* \end{cases} \quad \text{or}$$

linear equation

$$\mathbf{x}^* = (I - \sigma A)^{-1} \mathbf{1} \quad \text{if } x_i^* > 0$$

$$\mathbf{1} = (1, 1, 1, 1 \dots)^T$$

# Jacobian

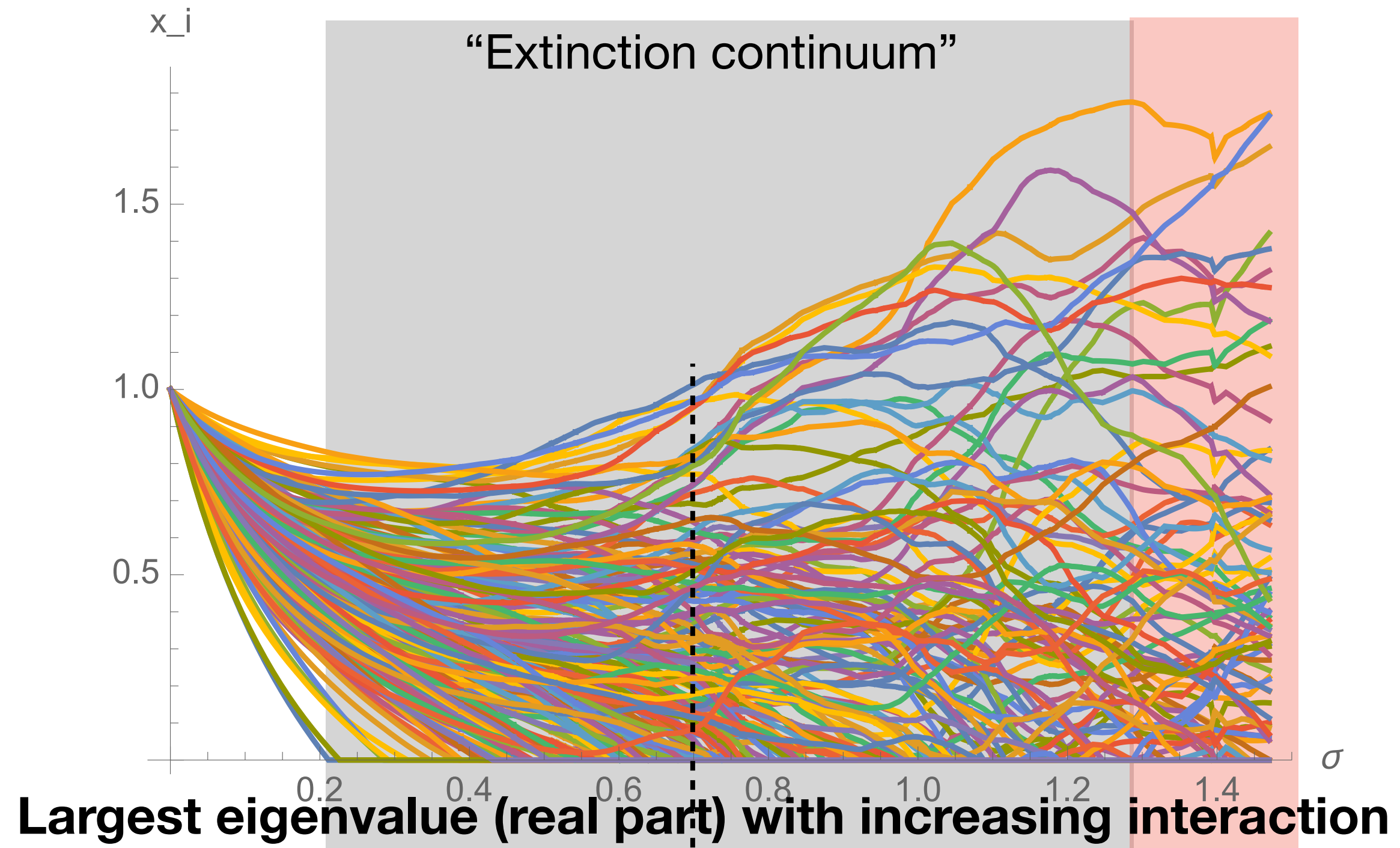
$$J = X(\sigma A - I) \text{ where } X = \text{diag}(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots)$$

May's Jacobian

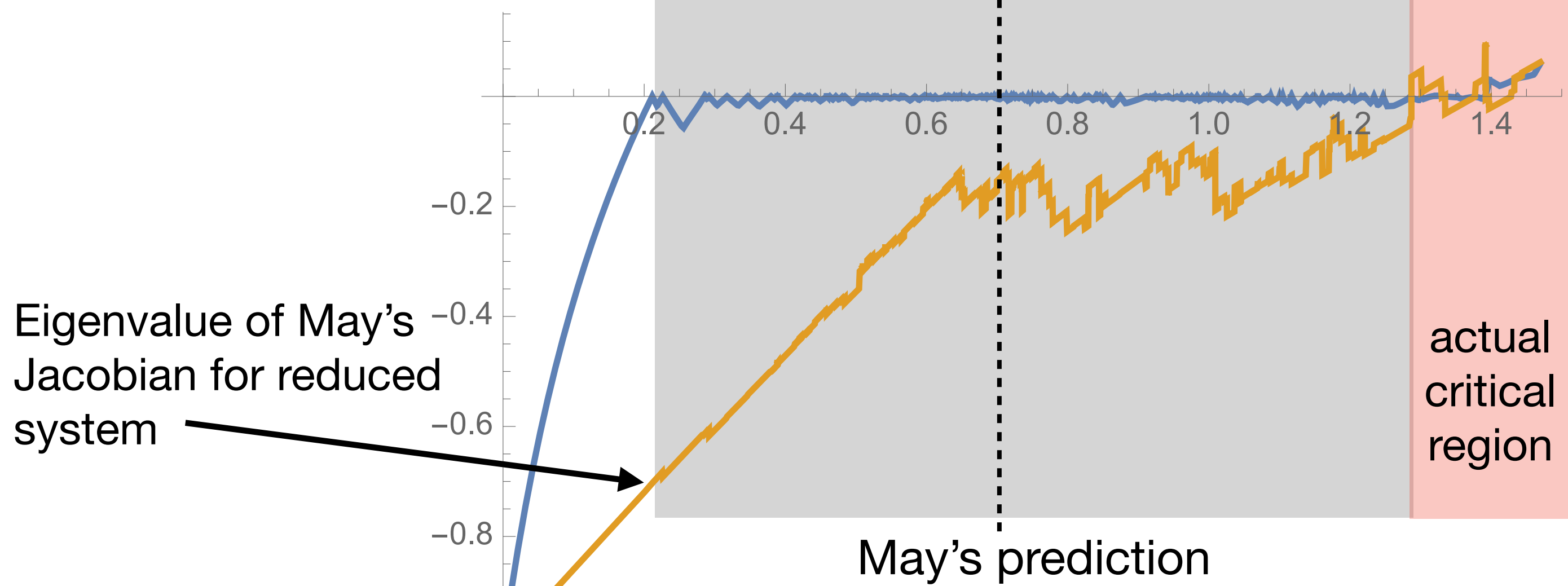
assuming  $x_i^* > 0$

depends on the fixed  
point, natural in  
interacting systems that  
are not typically linear

# Fixed point with increasing interaction strength



Largest eigenvalue (real part) with increasing interaction



actual critical region

May's prediction