

Lecture 02: Notes on linear systems

Introduction

The expounded material can be found in

- ch. 2 of [2]
- ch. 2 of [1]

1 Some terminology and mathematical notation for linear maps

Let $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ two vector spaces.

Definition 1.1. *The map*

$$A: \mathbb{V}_1 \mapsto \mathbb{V}_2 \tag{1.1}$$

is linear if

- for any $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in V_1$, is additive

$$A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2$$

- for any $c \in \mathbb{C}$ and any $\mathbf{x} \in V_1$

$$A c \mathbf{x} = c A \mathbf{x} \tag{1.2}$$

By definition a linear map preserves the algebraic structure of its domain, a vector space, as its image is still a vector space. It is therefore an *homomorphism*. The collection of linear maps between the two vector spaces $\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2$ can be denoted as $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2)$. In particular, if $\mathbb{V}_1 = \mathbb{V}_2 = \mathbb{V}$, we can write $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{V}, \mathbb{V}) = \text{End}(\mathbb{V})$ and talk of the set of *endomorphisms* of \mathbb{V} . If $A \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2)$ is *invertible* we can think of it as an element of $\text{GL}(\mathbb{V}_1, \mathbb{V}_2)$ the general linear group. Finally, in any basis of $\mathbb{V} = \mathbb{R}^n$, A is a matrix i.e. $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$. In what follow we will identify the map with its coordinate representation.

2 Linear differential equations

Let $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, we consider

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) &= A \mathbf{x}(t) \\ \mathbf{x}(0) &= \mathbf{x}_0 \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

where $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Formally (2.1) has the solution

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{A t} \mathbf{x}_0 \tag{2.2}$$

2.1 Exponential of matrices

Definition 2.1 (exponential of a matrix). Let $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then

$$e^A := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!} \quad (2.3)$$

Remark 2.1. The norm over $\text{End}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ defined by

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\|A\mathbf{x}\| \mid \|\mathbf{x}\| = 1\} \leq \left(\sum_{i,j=1}^n A_{ij}^2 \right)^{1/2} \quad (2.4)$$

verifies

$$\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\| \quad (2.5)$$

whence $\|A^n\| \leq \|A\|^n$, thus the series defining e^A is convergent. To prove the claim we can use the identity

$$\frac{\langle AB\mathbf{x}, AB\mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = \frac{\langle AB\mathbf{x}, AB\mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle B\mathbf{x}, B\mathbf{x} \rangle} \frac{\langle B\mathbf{x}, B\mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \quad (2.6)$$

Proposition 2.1. Let A, B and T . Then

1. if $B = TAT^{-1}$ i.e. if A and B are similar then $\exp(B) = T \exp(A) T^{-1}$;
2. if $[A, B] = 0$ then $\exp(A+B) = \exp(A) \exp(B)$;
3. $\exp(-A) = (\exp(A))^{-1}$

Proof.

1. If A and B are similar

$$\exp(B) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(TAT^{-1})^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} T \frac{A^n}{n!} T^{-1} \quad (2.7)$$

2. If A and B commute

$$\exp(A+B) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(A+B)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j+k=n} \frac{A^j B^k}{j! k!} \quad (2.8)$$

whence (omitting considerations about convergence of the series)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j+k=n} \frac{A^j B^k}{j! k!} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{A^j B^{n-j}}{j! (n-j)!} = \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=j}^{\infty} \frac{A^j B^{n-j}}{j! (n-j)!} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^j}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{B^k}{k!} \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

3. Set $B = -A$ and use the property 2.

□

Proposition 2.2. If $v_{[a]} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue a is also an eigenvector of $\exp(A)$ with eigenvalue $\exp(a)$

Proposition 2.3. Let $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^d)$

$$\frac{d}{dt}e^{At} = A e^{At} = e^{At} A \quad (2.10)$$

Proof.

$$\frac{d}{dt}e^{At} = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{e^{A(t+\epsilon)} - e^{At}}{\epsilon} = A e^{At} \quad (2.11)$$

□

2.2 Existence and uniqueness of solutions

Existence and uniqueness follow from the more general Peano-Cauchy and icard-Lindelöf theorems. It is, however, instructive to prove them in the linear case.

Theorem 2.1. The solution of (2.1) exists and is unique.

Proof.

- Existence follows from proposition 2.3.
- Uniqueness: the proof proceed per absurdum. Let us surmise that

$$z(t) = e^{-At}x(t) \quad (2.12)$$

is *not* constant. Then, omitting the time dependence to neaten the notation,

$$\dot{z} = -A e^{-At}x + e^{-At}\dot{x} = -A e^{-At}x + e^{-At}Ax = 0 \quad (2.13)$$

which contradicts the hypothesis.

□

2.3 Explicit form of the solution

Definition 2.2. The fundamental (principal) solution F_t of (2.1) is specified by the initial condition

$$F_0 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad F_t = e^{At} \quad (2.14)$$

Proposition 2.4. F_t is a flow

The characteristic polynomial of $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ can be written as

$$P(A) = \det(\lambda 1 - A) = \prod_{j=1}^m (\lambda - a_j)^{m_j}, \quad (2.15)$$

where

- $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{C}$ are the $m \leq n$ distinct eigenvalues of A ;

- m_j is the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue a_j .

By definition one has

$$\sum_{j=1}^m m_j = n \quad (2.16)$$

The geometric multiplicity g_j of a_j is defined as the number of independent eigenvectors associated with a_j , and satisfies $1 \geq g_j \geq m_j$.

Proposition 2.5. Any $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ can be decomposed as

$$A = S + N, \quad SN = NS. \quad (2.17)$$

where the linear maps S, N are defined as follows.

- S is the semi-simple part. It can be written as

$$S = \sum_{j=1}^m a_j P_j, \quad (2.18)$$

where the P_j are projectors on the eigenspaces of A , i.e. P_j is the projector over the linear subspace

$$\mathcal{A}_j = \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (A - a_j \mathbf{1})^{m_j} \mathbf{v} = 0\} \quad (2.19)$$

The projectors $\{P_j\}_{j=1}^m$ satisfy the orthogonality relations

$$P_j P_k = \delta_{jk} P_j \quad \sum_j P_j = \mathbf{1} \quad (2.20)$$

and

$$m_j = \dim(P_j \mathbb{R}^n) \quad (2.21)$$

- The nilpotent part N can be written as

$$N = \sum_{j=1}^m N_j, \quad (2.22)$$

Each of the N_j 's satisfy the relations

$$N_j^{m_j} = 0, \quad N_j N_k = 0 \quad \text{for } j \neq k, \quad P_j N_k = N_k P_j = \delta_{jk} N_j. \quad (2.23)$$

In an appropriate basis, each N_j is block-diagonal, with g_j blocks of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.24)$$

In fact, $N_j = 0$ unless $g_j < m_j$. In other words,

- if for each eigenvalue the geometric multiplicity coincides with the algebraic multiplicity we can write

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \sum_{j=1}^{m_j} \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_j} \otimes \mathbf{r}_{[a_i]_j} \quad (2.25)$$

with

$$A \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]} = a_i \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]} \quad \& \quad \mathbf{r}_{[a_i]} A = a_i \mathbf{r}_{[a_i]} \quad (2.26)$$

and

$$\langle \mathbf{r}_{[a_i]_j}, \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_k} \rangle = \mathbf{r}_{[a_i]_j}^* \cdot \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_k} = \sum_{s=1}^n (\mathbf{r}_{[a_i]_j})_s^* (\mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_k})_s = \delta_{il} \delta_{jk} \quad (2.27)$$

- if the geometric multiplicity is smaller than the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue a_i , we have for “left” generalized eigenvectors the relations

$$\begin{aligned} A \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_1} &= a_i \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_1} + \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_2} \\ A \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_2} &= a_i \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_2} + \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_3} \\ &\dots \\ A \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_{m_j}} &= a_i \mathbf{l}_{[a_i]_{m_j}} \end{aligned} \quad (2.28)$$

and similarly for “right” generalized eigenvectors in the dual space.

Proposition 2.6. *The fundamental solution of (2.1) is amenable to the form*

$$e^{A t} = \sum_{j=1}^m e^{a_j t} P_j \left[1 + N_j t + \dots + \frac{N_j^{m_j-1} t^{m_j-1}}{(m_j-1)!} \right] \quad (2.29)$$

Proof. Whenever $A B = B A$ we can use $e^{A t} e^{B t} = e^{(A+B)t}$. Thus

$$e^{A t} = e^{(S+N)t} = e^{S t} e^{N t} \quad (2.30)$$

Recalling that

$$P_i P_j = P_j P_i = \delta_{ij} P_i \quad (2.31)$$

i.e. commutativity and idempotence of projectors we have

$$e^{a_j P_j t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_j^n P_j^n t^n}{n!} = 1 + P_j \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_j^n t^n}{n!} = 1 + (e^{a_j t} - 1) P_j \quad (2.32)$$

whence

$$e^{S t} = \prod_{j=1}^m e^{a_j P_j t} = \prod_{j=1}^m \{1 + (e^{a_j t} - 1) P_j\} = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^m (e^{a_j t} - 1) P_j = \sum_{j=1}^m e^{a_j t} P_j \quad (2.33)$$

Similarly by

$$N_i N_j = N_j N_i \quad (2.34)$$

we also have

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{Nt} &= \prod_{j=1}^m e^{N_j t} = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^m (e^{N_j t} - 1) \\
&= 1 + N_j t + \cdots + \frac{N_j^{m_j-1} t^{m_j-1}}{(m_j - 1)!}
\end{aligned} \tag{2.35}$$

since $e^{N_j t}$ contains only finitely many terms, being nilpotent. \square

The expression (2.29) shows that the long-time behaviour is determined by the real parts of the eigenvalues a_j , while the nilpotent terms, when present, influence the short time behaviour. This motivates the following terminology:

2.4 Asymptotic behavior

Definition 2.3. *The subspace*

$$W_u := \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} e^{At} y = 0 \right\} \quad P^{(u)} := \sum_{j: \Re a_j > 0} P_j \tag{2.36}$$

is referred to as the unstable subspace of the fixed point $x^* = 0$

Definition 2.4. *The subspace*

$$W_s := \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{At} y = 0 \right\} \quad P^{(s)} := \sum_{j: \Re a_j < 0} P_j \tag{2.37}$$

is referred to as the stable subspace of the fixed point $x^* = 0$

Definition 2.5. *The subspace*

$$W_0 := P^{(c)} \mathbb{R}^n, \quad P^{(c)} := \sum_{j: \Re a_j = 0} P_j \tag{2.38}$$

is referred to as the centre subspace of the fixed point $x^* = 0$

The above defined subspaces are invariant subspaces of e^{At} , that is,

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{At} W_u &\subset W_u \\
e^{At} W_s &\subset W_s \\
e^{At} W_0 &\subset W_0
\end{aligned} \tag{2.39}$$

Definition 2.6. *The fixed point is called*

- a sink if $W_u = W_0 = \{0\}$,
- a source if $W_s = W_0 = \{0\}$,
- a hyperbolic point if $W_0 = \{0\}$,
- an elliptic point if $W_u = W_s = \{0\}$.

3 Linear systems in two dimensions

Let $n = 2$, and let A be in Jordan canonical form, with $\det A \neq 0$. Then we can distinguish between the following behaviours, depending on the eigenvalues a_1, a_2 of A .

1. $a_1 \neq a_2$

(a) If $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.1)$$

and

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{a_1 t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{a_2 t} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{a_1 t} y_1(0) \\ e^{a_2 t} y_2(0) \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.2)$$

The orbits are curves of the form $y_2 = c y_1^{a_2/a_1}$. x^* is called a *node* if $a_1 a_2 > 0$, and a *saddle* if $a_1 a_2 < 0$.

(b) If $a_1 = a_2^\dagger = a + i\omega \in \mathbb{C}$, then the real canonical form of A is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & -\omega \\ \omega & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.3)$$

and

$$e^{At} = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\omega t) & -\sin(\omega t) \\ \sin(\omega t) & \cos(\omega t) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{at} \{ y_1(0) \cos(\omega t) - y_2(0) \sin(\omega t) \} \\ e^{at} \{ y_1(0) \sin(\omega t) + y_2(0) \cos(\omega t) \} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.4)$$

x^* is called a *focus* if $a \neq 0$, and a *center* if $a = 0$. The orbits are spirals or ellipses.

2. $a_1 = a_2 := a$

(a) If a has geometric multiplicity 2, then $A = a I$ and $e^{At} = e^{at} I$; x^* is called a *degenerate node*.

(b) If a has geometric multiplicity 1, then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.5)$$

and

$$e^{At} = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{at} \{ y_1(0) + y_2(0)t \} \\ e^{at} y_2(0) \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.6)$$

x^* is called an *improper node*.

3.1 Classification of 2-dimensional linear systems

Consider $A \in \text{End}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. The most general form is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.7)$$

The characteristic polynomial is

$$P(A) = (\lambda - a)(\lambda - d) - bc = \lambda^2 - \lambda(a + d) + ad - bc \quad (3.8)$$

It can be rewritten in terms of invariants

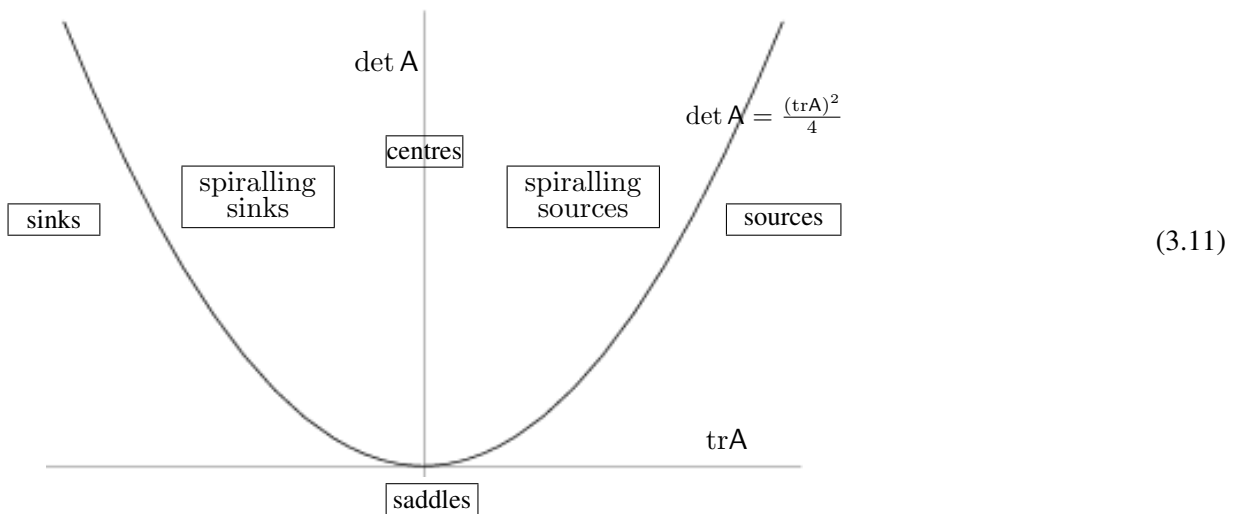
$$P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \lambda \operatorname{tr} A + \det A \quad (3.9)$$

The eigenvalues are

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_+ &= \frac{\operatorname{tr} A + \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}^2 A - 4 \det A}}{2} \\ \lambda_- &= \frac{\operatorname{tr} A - \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}^2 A - 4 \det A}}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

one has

- $(\operatorname{tr} A)^2 > 4 \det A$, $\det A$ real eigenvalues
 - $\det A < 0$ the origin is a saddle
 - $\det A > 0, \operatorname{tr} A > 0$ the origin is a source
 - $\det A > 0, \operatorname{tr} A < 0$ the origin is a sink
- $\operatorname{tr}^2 A < 4 \det A$ real eigenvalues
 - $\det A > 0, \operatorname{tr} A > 0$ the origin is a spiralling source
 - $\det A > 0, \operatorname{tr} A < 0$ the origin is a spiralling sink



A centre is encountered for $\operatorname{tr} A = 0$

Appendices

A An extra: 2-d matrices in the Pauli basis

The Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_0 = \mathbf{1}_2, \quad \sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (A-1)$$

provide a basis for $\text{End}(\mathbb{C}^2)$. Namely any matrix A in $\text{End}(\mathbb{C}^2)$ can be written as

$$A = \sum_{i=0}^3 a_i \sigma_i \quad (\text{A-2})$$

Furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} [\sigma_i, \sigma_j] &= 2i\epsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k \\ \{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} &:= \sigma_i \sigma_j + \sigma_j \sigma_i = 2 \mathbf{1}_2 \delta_{ij} \quad \text{anticommutativity} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-3})$$

for ϵ_{ijk} the totally anti-symmetric symbol

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = -\epsilon_{ikj} = \epsilon_{kij} \quad (\text{A-4})$$

for example

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1 \sigma_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} \\ \sigma_2 \sigma_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-5})$$

Proposition A.1. *Using the above algebra*

$$AB = \left(\sum_{i=0}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 b_j \sigma_j \right) = (a_0^2 + a \cdot b) \sigma_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 [a_0 b_i + b_0 a_i + i(a \wedge b)_i] \sigma_i \quad (\text{A-6})$$

having defined

$$a := \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A-7})$$

Proof.

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 b_j \sigma_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i b_i \sigma_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j \neq i} a_i b_j \sigma_i \sigma_j = a \cdot b + \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j \neq i} a_i b_j \frac{\{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} + [\sigma_i, \sigma_j]}{2} \quad (\text{A-8})$$

since

$$\sigma_i \sigma_j = \frac{\{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} + [\sigma_i, \sigma_j]}{2} \quad (\text{A-9})$$

Use now the algebra of the Pauli matrices

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 b_j \sigma_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j \neq i} a_i b_j \frac{2i\epsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k}{2} = i \sum_{i=1}^3 (a \wedge b)_i \sigma_i \quad (\text{A-10})$$

□

A useful consequence is that

$$\begin{aligned}
A^2 &= (a_0^2 + a^2) \sigma_0 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 a_0 a_i \sigma_i \\
A^3 &= (a_0^2 + 3a^2) a_0 \sigma_0 + (3a_0^2 + a^2) \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i
\end{aligned} \tag{A-11}$$

Proposition A.2.

$$A^n = \sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k} a_0^{n-2k} a^{2k} \sigma_0 + \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}-1} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n-2k-1} a^{2k} \right) \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \tag{A-12}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{n+1} &= \left[a_0 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k} a_0^{n-2k} a^{2k} \right) + a^2 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}-1} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n-2k-1} a^{2k} \right) \right] \sigma_0 \\
&+ \left[a_0 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}-1} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n-2k-1} a^{2k} \right) + \sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k} a_0^{n-2k} a^{2k} \right] \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i
\end{aligned} \tag{A-13}$$

Observe now that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}-1} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n-2k-1} a^{2k+2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n+1-2k} a^{2k} \tag{A-14}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k} a_0^{n+1-2k} a^{2k} + \sum_{k=1}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n+1-2k} a^{2k} \\
&= a_0^n + \sum_{k=1}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}} \left[\binom{n}{2k} + \binom{n}{2k-1} \right] a_0^{n+1-2k} a^{2k} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}} \binom{n+1}{2k} a_0^{n+1-2k} a^{2k}
\end{aligned} \tag{A-15}$$

analogously for the second term. □

The exponential of $A \in \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}$ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
e^A &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n}{2}\}} \binom{n}{2k} a_0^{n-2k} a^{2k} \sigma_0 + \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\text{int}\{\frac{n+1}{2}\}-1} \binom{n}{2k+1} a_0^{n-2k-1} a^{2k} \right) \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right] \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)!} \left[\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n}{2k} a_0^{2(n-k)} a^{2k} \sigma_0 + \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} a_0^{2n-2k-1} a^{2k} \right) \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right] \\
&+ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)!} \left[\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n+1}{2k} a_0^{2n-2k+1} a^{2k} \sigma_0 + \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n+1}{2k+1} a_0^{2n-2k} a^{2k} \right) \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \right]
\end{aligned} \tag{A-16}$$

Observing that

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n}{2k} a_0^{2(n-k)} a^{2k} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[(a_0 + \sqrt{a^2})^{2n} + (a_0 - \sqrt{a^2})^{2n} \right] \\ \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n+1}{2k} a_0^{2n-2k+1} a^{2k} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[(a_0 + \sqrt{a^2})^{2n+1} + (a_0 - \sqrt{a^2})^{2n+1} \right]\end{aligned}\quad (\text{A-17})$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2k+1} a_0^{2n-2k-1} a^{2k} &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a^2}} \left[(a_0 + \sqrt{a^2})^{2n} - (a_0 - \sqrt{a^2})^{2n} \right] \\ \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{2n+1}{2k+1} a_0^{2n-2k} a^{2k} &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a^2}} \left[(a_0 + \sqrt{a^2})^{2n+1} - (a_0 - \sqrt{a^2})^{2n+1} \right]\end{aligned}\quad (\text{A-18})$$

Which finally yields

$$e^A = \frac{e^{a_0+\sqrt{a^2}} + e^{a_0-\sqrt{a^2}}}{2} \sigma_0 + \frac{e^{a_0+\sqrt{a^2}} - e^{a_0-\sqrt{a^2}}}{2\sqrt{a^2}} \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \quad (\text{A-19})$$

In particular if

$$\text{tr}A = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_0 = 0 \quad (\text{A-20})$$

then

$$e^A = \cosh(\sqrt{a^2}) \sigma_0 + \frac{\sinh(\sqrt{a^2})}{\sqrt{a^2}} \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i \quad (\text{A-21})$$

References

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