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# Efficient Solution of the Variational Equation for Piecewise-Linear Differential Equations $\dagger$ 

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#### Abstract

An efficient method for computing the solution of the variational equation associated with a piecewise-linear differential equation is presented. The method relies on the matrix exponential and requires no integration beyond the calculation of the trajectory along which the variational equation is being solved. Initial results show a ten-fold increase in efficiency over traditional methods. Some source code is included for the three-dimensional case.


## 1. Introduction

Due to the complexity of nonlinear phenomena, much recent work on nonlinear dynamical systems has relied on numerical simulation. In the hope of obtaining analytical results, several researchers have focused their attention on piecewise-linear systems [1, 2, 3]. However, even though analytical results are the goal, numerical simulations still play a crucial role in these piecewise-linear studies.

One widely used tool in the numerical study of differential equations is the variational equation. Most numerical techniques for finding periodic solutions, such as the shooting method [4], rely on the variational equation in the correction phase of the Newton-Raphson algorithm. Once a periodic solution has been found, its stability can be determined by calculating the eigenvalues of the solution to the variational equation. Current methods for calculating Lyapunov exponents also utilize the variational equation [5].

The solution to the variational equation is typically obtained by numerical integration. The variational equation is a matrix equation and thus computationally costly to integrate. To make matters worse, every evaluation of the right-hand side of the variational equation requires some additional integration of the original differential equation.

We will show that once the trajectory of a piecewise-linear differential equation has been calculated, the associated variational equation can be quickly and cheaply calculated with no additional integration (provided the solution exists).

In [1]. Chua et al. study a second-order piecewise-linear differential equation with sinusoidal forcing. They derive an expression for the solution of the variational equation along a periodic solution with transverse boundary crossings. Our treatment removes these restrictions and extends the result to forced

[^0]and unforced equations of any order.

## 2. Notation and Statement of the Theorem

Consider the piecewise-linear differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=f(x)+u(t) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and where $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is in piecewise-linear canonical form [6]

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=a+B x+\sum_{i=1}^{p} c_{i}\left|\left\langle\alpha_{i}, x\right\rangle-\beta_{i}\right| . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, a, c_{i}, \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and $\beta_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ are constants. Note that $f$ is a sum of continuous functions and is itself continuous. Most piecewise-linear functions of interest may be represented in this canonical form [7]; however, our result relies only on the continuity of $f(\cdot)$.

Let $K$ denote the number of linear regions defined by $f(\cdot)$. We say $x$ lies on $a$ boundary if one or more of the absolute value functions in $f(x)$ evaluates to zero. If $x$ does not lie on a boundary, we say $x$ lies in the interior of one of the $K$ linear regions.

Suppose $\varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ is the solution to (1) at time $t$ with initial condition $x_{0}$ and initial time $t_{0}$. As $t$ increases from $t_{0}, \varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ repeatedly leaves one region and enters another. Thus for any time $t>t_{0}, \varphi\left(\cdot ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ defines a finite sequence of linear regions $R=\left\{r_{a}, r_{1}, \ldots r_{m}\right\}$ where $r_{i} \in\{1,2, \ldots K\}$ denotes a particular region. For simplicity we assume neither $x_{a}$ nor $\varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ lies on a boundary. Thus $x_{0}$ and $\varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ are in $r_{0}$ and $r_{m}$, respectively. Note that it is possible for $r_{i}$ to equal $r_{i-1}$. This situation may occur when the trajectory is tangent to a boundary.

For any time $t>t_{0}, \varphi\left(\cdot ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ also defines a unique, ordered set of boundary crossing times $T=\left\{t^{\prime}: t_{0} \leq t^{\prime} \leq t, \varphi\left(t^{\prime} ; x_{0} ; t_{0}\right)\right.$ lies on a boundary $\}$. If each boundary crossing occurs at a single instant of time, then $T$ is a finite, ordered sequence $\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots t_{m}\right\}$ where $t_{i}$ is the time at which the trajectory passes from region $r_{i-1}$ to region $r_{i}$. We say such a trajectory has finite boundary crossings. A trajectory without finite boundary crossings must lie on a boundary for a nonzero interval of time.

The sample trajectory in Figure 1 has $R=\{3,2,1,2,1,2,3\}$ and $T=\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}, t_{3}, t_{4}, t_{6}, t_{8}\right\}$. It is important to remember that the sequences $R$ and $T$ both depend on $t$ as well as on $x_{0}$ and $t_{0}$.

The variational equation of (1) along $\varphi\left(\cdot ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\Phi}=D_{x} f\left(\varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)\right) \Phi \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Phi(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\Phi\left(t_{0}\right)=I$, the identity matrix. If $\varphi\left(\cdot ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ has finite boundary crossings over $\left[t_{0}, t\right]$, $\Phi(t)$ exists and is the derivative of $\varphi\left(t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ with respect to $x_{0}$ [8].

Theorem: If the solution to (1), $\varphi\left(\because ; x_{a}, t_{0}\right)$, has finite boundary crossings over the time interval $\left[t_{0}, t\right]$ with sequences $R$ and $T$ defined above, then the solution of the variational equation (3) at time $t$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(t)=\exp \left(J_{\tau_{m}}\left(t-t_{m}\right)\right) \exp \left(J_{r_{m-1}}\left(t_{m}-t_{m-1}\right)\right) \ldots \exp \left(J_{r_{0}}\left(t_{1}-t_{0}\right)\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the Jacobian $J_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is equal to $D_{x} f(x)$ in region $i$ and $\exp (A)$ denotes the matrix exponential of $A$.

The proof is presented in Appendix 1.

## 3. Discussion

To evaluate $\Phi$, we need the matrices $J_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq K$ and the two sequences $R$ and $T$. The Jacobians $J_{i}$ are generally known a priori since the coefficients of (2) depend on them. If not, we can find them analytically by differentiating (2). $R$ and $T$ can be found by integrating (1) numerically and checking at each timestep whether the trajectory has entered a new region. When it does, a simple timestep-halving scheme can be used to calculate the crossing time.

The problem of calculating the matrix exponential is a tricky one. There is currently no satisfactory algorithm available for reliably calculating the exponential of an arbitrary $n \times n$ real matrix [9].§

We have included $C$ functions in Appendix 2 for calculating the matrix exponential for the three-dimensional case. Though limited in dimension, these functions are still useful since the majority of recent research in nonlinear differential equations has concentrated on the three-dimensional case. We use La Grange interpolation (method 9 in [9]):
where the $\lambda_{k}$ are the eigenvalues of $A$.
This method has several advantages for our application:

1) There is a large one-time expense to initialize the algorithm for each matrix $A$; however, evaluations of $\exp (A t)$ for different $t$ are very efficient.
2) Complex eigenvalues are easily handled with real arithmetic. See Appendix 2 for details.
3) The algorithm is easy to program.

The major disadvantage is that the algorithm is not reliable when the eigenvalues lie near each other. Fortunately, in most real-world applications this constraint is not a problem. $\dagger$

Comparisons of the La Grange interpolation method versus the exact solution of $\exp (A t)$ using 64 bit floating point arithmetic indicate accuracy to about twelve digits. No integration routine can hope to achieve this accuracy.

We also calculated the solution to the variational equation of the piecewiselinear circuit presented in [2] using the matrix exponential and by direct integration of (2) $\ddagger$ using an $R K F 45$ variable stepsize integration routine. Direct integration was roughly ten times slower than the matrix exponential method and the result was less accurate. The matrix exponential method required slightly less than twice the time it took to integrate the original differential equation. Most of the additional time was spent locating the boundary crossings-the evaluation of the matrix exponential was very quick.

[^1]
## Acknowledgements

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## Appendix 1: Proof of the Theorem

In this appendix we assume $x_{0}$ and $t_{0}$ are fixed and we abbreviate $\varphi\left(\cdot ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)$ by $\varphi(\cdot)$. By $O(\varepsilon)$ we mean a function such that $\|O(\varepsilon)\| / \varepsilon$ is bounded as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0, \varepsilon>0$. By $\circ(\varepsilon)$ we mean a function such that $\|\circ(\varepsilon)\| / \varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, $\varepsilon>0$.

First, we present a lemma.
Lemma: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $\exp (A(t+O(\varepsilon)))=\exp (A t)+O(\varepsilon) . \dagger$
Proof of Lemma: We use the Taylor series expansion for $\exp (\cdot)$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\exp (A(t+O(\varepsilon))) & =\exp (A t) \exp (A O(\varepsilon))  \tag{6}\\
& =\exp (A t)\left(I+A O(\varepsilon)+(A O(\varepsilon))^{2} / 2+\ldots\right. \\
& =\exp (A t)+O(\varepsilon)
\end{align*}
$$

which completes the proof.
Proof of the Theorem: What we want to find is $\Phi(t)=D_{x_{0}} \varphi(t)$. If (1) were linear with Jacobian $J . \varphi(t)$ would have the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{L}(t)=\exp \left(J\left(t-t_{0}\right)\right) x_{0}+\int_{0}^{t} \exp (J(t-\tau)) u(\tau) d \tau \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\Phi(t)$ would simply be $\Phi_{L}(t)=\exp \left(J\left(t-t_{0}\right)\right)$. The subscript $L$ denotes the linear case.

However (1) is not linear. To account for the boundary crossings, we isolate them by choosing any sequence $\left\{\tau_{0}, \tau_{1}, \ldots \tau_{m}\right\}$ such that $\tau_{0}=t_{0}, \tau_{m}=t$ and $t_{i-1}<\tau_{i}<t_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m-1$. By the chain rule,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{x_{0}} \varphi\left(\tau_{m}\right)=D_{\varphi\left(\tau_{0}\right) \varphi} \varphi\left(\tau_{m}\right)=D_{\varphi\left(\tau_{m-1}\right)} \varphi\left(\tau_{m}\right) D_{\varphi\left(\tau_{m-2}\right)} \varphi\left(\tau_{m-1}\right) \ldots D_{\varphi\left(\tau_{0}\right)} \varphi\left(\tau_{1}\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence the problem is reduced to calculating $\Phi_{i}:=D_{\varphi\left(T_{i-1}\right)} \varphi\left(T_{i}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then $\Phi=\Phi_{m} \Phi_{m-1} \ldots \Phi_{1}$.

Each $\Phi_{i}$ accounts for exactly one boundary crossing. We will show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{i}=\exp \left(J_{\tau_{i}}\left(\tau_{i}-t_{i}\right)\right) \exp \left(J_{\tau_{i-1}}\left(t_{i}-\tau_{i-1}\right)\right) \quad 1 \leq i \leq m \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

which will conclude the proof. Intuitively. (9) means that the boundary crossing has no ill effect; $\Phi_{i}$ is simply the product of the $\Phi_{L} \leqslant$ in regions $r_{i-1}$ and $r_{i}$.

Some sample trajectories $\varphi(\cdot)$ are shown in Figure 2 over the interval [ $\left.T_{i-1}, T_{i}\right]$. Figure 2 also shows trajectories with perturbed initial conditions $\phi(\cdot):=\varphi\left(\cdot: x_{0}+\Delta x, t_{0}\right)$ over the same time period. The perturbation is slight, that is $\left\|\hat{\varphi}\left(t^{\prime}\right)-\varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)\right\|<\varepsilon$ for $t_{0} \leq t^{\prime} \leq t . \varepsilon>0$ is chosen small enough that $\varphi\left(\tau_{i}\right)$ and $\hat{\varphi}\left(\tau_{i}\right)$ lie in the same region for $0 \leq i \leq m$. Continuity of $\varphi(\cdot)$ with respect to
$\dagger$ five have abused notation here. On the left-hand side, $O(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{R}$ while on the right-hand side $O(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$. Of course the two are not equal.
the initial condition allows us to find such an $\varepsilon$.
Define $\Delta \varphi(\cdot):=\widehat{\varphi}(\cdot)-\varphi(\cdot)$. From the definition of the derivative, $\Phi_{i}$ is the matrix such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(T_{i}\right)=\Phi_{i} \Delta \varphi\left(T_{i-1}\right)+o(\varepsilon) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $t^{\prime}$ be the first time (after $\tau_{i-1}$ ) such that either $\varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ or $\hat{\varphi}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ lies on a boundary. Similarly, let $t^{\prime \prime}$ be the last time (before $\tau_{i}$ ) such that either $\varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)$ or $\hat{\varphi}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ lies on a boundary $\dagger$. Finite boundary crossings and the continuity of $\varphi$ with respect to initial conditions guarantee that $t_{i}-t^{\prime}=O(\varepsilon)$ and $t^{\prime \prime}-t_{i}=O(\varepsilon)$. Hence $t^{\prime \prime}-t^{\prime}=O(\varepsilon)$.
$\varphi(\cdot)$ and $\hat{\varphi}(\cdot)$ stay in region $r_{i-1}$ over $\left[\tau_{i-1}, t^{\prime}\right)$. Thus from (7)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(J_{r_{i-1}}\left(t^{\prime}-\tau_{i-1}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(\tau_{i-1}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $t_{i}-t^{\prime}=O(\varepsilon)$ we use the lemma and the fact that $O(\varepsilon) O(\varepsilon)=o(\varepsilon)$ to get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(J_{\tau_{i-1}}\left(t_{i}-\tau_{i-1}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(\tau_{i-1}\right)+o(\varepsilon) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(\tau_{i}\right)=\exp \left(J_{\tau_{i}}\left(\tau_{i}-t_{i}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)+o(\varepsilon) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

To get $\Phi_{i}$ all that remains is to take care of the boundary crossing. We need to find a relationship between $\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)$. Recall that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)=\varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)+\int_{t^{\prime}}^{t^{\prime \prime}}[f(\varphi(\tau))+u(\tau)] d \tau \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the solution to (1) with initial condition $\varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)$. Using a similar expression for $\hat{\varphi}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ with initial condition $\hat{\varphi}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)=\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)+\int_{\zeta}^{t^{\prime \prime}}[f(\hat{\varphi}(\tau))-f(\varphi(\tau))] d \tau \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $t^{\prime \prime}-t^{\prime}=O(\varepsilon)$ and $f$ is continuous, the integral is $O(\varepsilon)$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)=I \Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)+0(\varepsilon) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally we combine (12), (13) and (16) to get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(\tau_{i}\right)=\exp \left(J_{r_{i}}\left(\tau_{i}-t_{i}\right)\right) / \exp \left(J_{\tau_{i-1}}\left(t_{i}-\tau_{i-1}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(\tau_{i-1}\right)+o(\varepsilon) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

which, when compared with (10), yields the desired result (9) and finishes the proof.

For trajectories without finite boundary crossings, $t^{\prime \prime}-t^{\prime} \neq O(\varepsilon)$ and (16) no longer holds. For a particular perturbation of $x_{0}$ (Figure 3(a)), (16) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)=\exp \left(J_{r_{l}}\left(t^{\prime \prime}-t^{\prime}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)+a(\varepsilon) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

while for another perturbation (Figure 3(b)) it becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)=\exp \left(J_{r_{i-1}}\left(t^{\prime \prime}-t^{\prime}\right)\right) \Delta \varphi\left(t^{\prime}\right)+o(\varepsilon) \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $\Phi_{i}$ depends on the perturbation and $\Phi$ is not well-defined.

[^2]
## Appendix 2: Computer Algorithm

A computer routine for solving the variational equation using matrix exponentials has three parts:

1) Integrate the trajectory of the original differential equation.
2) Locate the boundary crossings.
3) Calculate the matrix exponential.

Typically the differential equation would be integrated until two successive points lie in different regions. Then a timestep-halving scheme would be used to accurately locate the time of the boundary crossing. Next the matrix exponential would be calculated and multiplied into the result. Since steps 1) and 2) depend upon which integration package you choose to use, we will concentrate only on the matrix exponential.

The La Grange interpolation formula (5) requires the eigenvalues of the matrix $A$. Since we are restricting our attention to the three-dimensional case, we use the closed-form solution to a cubic equation to find the eigenvalues.

When a complex conjugate pair of eigenvalues exists, the La Grange formula can be rewritten

$$
\begin{align*}
& \exp (A t)=e^{\lambda_{1} t} \frac{(A-\alpha I)^{2}+\beta^{2} I}{\left(\lambda_{1}-\alpha\right)^{2}+\beta^{2}}+  \tag{20}\\
& \left.\quad \frac{\theta^{a t}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)}{\left(\lambda_{1}-\alpha\right)^{2}+\beta^{2}}\left(\left(\left(2 \alpha-\lambda_{1}\right) I-A\right) \cos (\beta t)+\left(\left(\alpha-\lambda_{1}\right) / \beta\right)(A-\alpha I)+\beta I\right) \sin (\beta t)\right\}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\lambda_{1}$ is the real eigenvalue and the complex conjugate eigenvalues are $\alpha \pm j \beta$.

The $C$ functions to implement the La Grange Interpolation formula for the three-dimensional case are given in Figure 4. There are two main functions. The function init_mat_exp() performs the one-time initialization for a particular matrix. If the eigenvalues are too close $\dagger$ init_mat_exp() returns NULU; otherwise, it returns a pointer to a structure which contains all the necessary information for mat_gap () to compute $\exp (A t)$ at different values of $t$.

We have also included a test routine main() which can be activated by \#defining TEST on the compiler command line.

[^3]
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## Figure Captions

Figure 1. A typical trajectory for a piecewise-linear differential equation with three linear regions.
Figure 2. Some typical trajectories $\varphi$, each making a finite boundary crossing. Also shown is a typical perturbation $\hat{\varphi}$ of each trajectory.
Figure 3. A typical trajectory $\varphi$. making a boundary crossing which is not finite. (a) and (b) show different perturbations of this trajectory.

Figure 4. C source code for the evaluation of three-dimensional matrix exponentials.


Fig. 1

(a)

(c)

(b)

(d)

Fig. 2

(a)

(b)

Fig. 3





```
#inclade <stdio.h>
#define FALSE 0
#define TRUE 1
typedef struct
{
    int m_cplx; /*TRUE if complex eigenvalues*/
    doable m_ev[3];
        /the eigenvalues*/
    double m_a[3][3][3]; /ethe three interpolation matrices*/
| MAT_EXP;
```




```
/PEvaluates the matrix exponential of the matrix associated with \(m\) (as the result of a call to init_mat_exp()) at a given time \(t\). The result is returned in axp_at as a \(3 x 3\) matrix."/
```

```
mat_exp(exp_at, t, m)
```

mat_exp(exp_at, t, m)
mat_exp
mat_exp
double exp_at[][3], t;
MAT_EXP 'm;
l
int i, j;
double exp_t[3], exp(0, cos(), sin();
if (m->>m_cplx)
\&
exp_t[0] = exp(m->m_ev[0,*t);
exp_t[1] = exp(m->m_ev[1]+t);
exp_t[2] = exp_t[1]*sin(m->m_ ev[2]*t);
exp_t[1] = cos(m->>m_ev[2]*t);
l
else
fore(i = 0; 1 < 3; i++)
exp_t[i] = exp(m->>m_ev[i]*t);
for (i=0; i}<<3;i++
for (j = 0; j < 3; j++)
exp_at[i][j] = exp_t[0]*mmm_a[0][i][i] +
\operatorname{exp}t[1]mmmma[1][i][j].
1
/****************************************************************/

```

```

- Initializes the $3 x 3$ matrix a for subsequent matrix exponential svaluation. Returns a pointer to an initialized MAT_EXP structure. If an error occurs (no more memory, eigenvalues too close), NULL is returned.*/

```
```

MAT_EXP *

```
MAT_EXP *
init_mat_exp(a)
init_mat_exp(a)
init_mat_exp
l
    char "malloc();
    MAT_EXP *m;
```

```
    m = (MAT_EXP *)malloc(sizeof(MAT_EXP));
    if (m == NULL)
        return (NULL);
    e_values(a, &m->m_cplx, m->m_ev);
    if(ev_close(m->m_cplx, m->>m_ev))
l
    free(m);
    retorn (NULL);
}
if (m->>m_cplx)
    cplx_init(a, m);
else
    real_init(a, m);
return (m);
l
/****************************************************************/
/****************************************************************/
/PPerforms initialization for the complex case*/
static
cplx_init(a,m)
double a[];
MAT_EXP 'm;
{
    dcuble scale, b[3][3], c[3][3];
    scale =}\underset{m}{(m->>m_ev[0][2]*m->>m_ev[2];
    mat_copy(b, a);
    add_diag(b, -mmmev[1]);
    mat_mult(m->m_a[0], b, b);
    add_diag(m->m_a[0]; m}>>m_ev[2]*m->>m_ev[2]):
    mat_scale(m->>m_a[0], 1.0/scale);
    mat_copy(b, a);
    add_diag(b, -m->m_ev[0]);
    mat_scale(b, 1.0/scale);
    mat_copy(c, a);
    add_diag(c, -2.0*m->m_ev[1] + m->m_ev[0]);
    mat_mult(m->m_a[1], b, c);
    mat_scale(m->>m_a[1], -1.0);
    mat_copy(c, a):
    add_diag(c, 一m->>m_ev[1]);
    mad__scale(c, (m->>m_ev[1]' - m mm_ev[0])/m->>m_ev[2]);
    add_diag(c, m->>m_ev[2]);
    mat_mult(m mm_a[2], b, c);
1
```




```
/PPerforms initialization for the real case.*/
static
real_init(a,m)
                                real_init
double a[]:
MAT_EXP "m;
```

```
{
    int i, j;
    double b[3][3][3]; /*b[i] is (a-ev[i])*/
    for (i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    {
    mat_copy(b[i], a);
    add_diag(b[i],: -m->m_ev[i]);
    }
    mat_mult(m->>m_a[0], b[1], b[2]);
    mat_mult(m->m_a 1], b[0], b[2]);
    mat_mult(m->m_a[2], b[0], b[1]);
    for Ti = 0; i < 3; i+++)
        for ( }\textrm{j}=0;\textrm{j}<3; j++
            if (i != j)
                mat_scale(m->>m_a[i], 1.0/(m->m_ev[i] - m->m_ev[j]));
}
```




```
/*Copies 3xS matrix a to a_copy.*/
mat_copy(a_copy, a)
mat_copy
double a_copy[], a[];
{
    int i;
    for(i = 0; i < %; i++)
        a_copy[i] = a[i];
}
```




```
PScales aach element of 3x3 matrise a by alphan*/
mat_scale(a, alpha)

\section*{donble a[], alpha;}
```

(
int $i_{;}$
for ( $\mathrm{i}=0 ; \mathrm{i}<9 ; \mathrm{i}++$ )
$a[$ i] $=$ alpha;
1
/****************************************************************/

```

```

/®Adds alphe to diagonal terms of $\alpha$, i.e $a=a+$ alpha*I.*/
add_diag(a, alpha)
add_diag
double alpha, a[][3];
!
int i;
for ( $i=0 ; i<3 ; i++$ )
1

```
```

/****************************************************************)

```

```

/*3x3 matrix multiplication: $c=a b$.*/
mat_mult(c, a, b)

```

\author{
mat_mult
}
```

double $a[][3], b[][3], c[][3] ;$
1
int $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$;

```
```

for ( $\mathrm{i}=0$; $\mathrm{i}<3 ; \mathrm{i}++$ )

```
```

for ( $\mathrm{i}=0$; $\mathrm{i}<3 ; \mathrm{i}++$ )

```


```

\}
菓***************************************************************/

```

```

MFinds eigenvalues of the real $3 x 3$ matrix a cplx is returned TRUE if the eigenvalues are complex: FALSE otherwise. If the eigenvalues ars real they are raturned in ev[0], ev[1] and ev[2]. In the complex case, ev[0] is the real eigenvalue, ev[1] ance ev[2] are the real part and the imaginary part of the complex eigenvalue, respectively."/
e_values(a, cplx, ev)
int *cplx;
double a[][3], ev[]:
1
double p, q. r: /*coeffs of the charactaristic polynomial*/
$p=-(a[0][0]+a[1][1]+a[2][2]) ;$
$\mathrm{q}=\mathrm{a}[0] 0 \mathrm{O} * 1][1]+\mathrm{a}[0][0] * 2] 2]+a[1][1] * a[2][2]-$
$r=a[0][2] * a[2][0] * a[1[1]+a[2] *-a[2]-a[0][2] * a[2][0] ;$
$r=a[0][2] a[2][0] * a[1][1]+a[2][1] * a[1][2] a[0][0]+$ $a[0][1] * a[1][2] * a[2][0]-a[0][2] * a[1][0] * a[2][1]$;
cubic ( $p, q, r, c p l x, e v) ;$

```
/
```

$1-$ Comprutes roots to cubic eqn: $s \sim 3+p^{*} s-2+q^{*} s+r=0$. The roots are returned in $x$ If complex roots exist, aple is set TRUE, $x[0]$ is the real root, $x[1]$ is the real part of the complex root and $x[2]>0$ is the imaginary part of the complex root; otherwise cple is set FALSE and $x[0], x[1]$ and $x[2]$ hold the three real roots. $* /$
static
cubic ( $p, q, r, c p l x, x)$
int *eplx;
double $p, q, r, x[]$;
1
double $a, b, c, A, B$, dummy, fabs(), pow(), sqrt();
$a=q / 3.0-p^{*} p / 9.0 ;$
$\mathrm{b}=\mathrm{p}^{*} \mathrm{p}^{*} \mathrm{p} / 27.0-\mathrm{p}^{*} \mathrm{q} / 6.0+\mathrm{r} / 2.0 ;$

```
    c= = a*a*a + b*b;
    if (c>0.0) /*complex roots exist*/
        cplx = TRUE;
        cube_root(-b + sqrt(c), 0.0, &&A, &dummy);
        cube_root(-b - sqrt(c). 0.0, &B, &dummy);
        x[0] =A + B - p/3.0;
        x1] = -(A + B /2.0-p/3.0; 1*real part*/
    x[2] = fabs(A - B)*sqrt(3.0)/2.0; /*imag part*/
    }
    else /*all real roots*/
    &
        *cplx = FALSE;
        cube_root(-b, sqrt(-c), &A, &B);
        x[0] =2.0*A - p/3.0;
        x[1] = -A - sqrt(3.0)*B - p/3.0;
    x[2] = -A + sqrt(3.0)*B - p/B.0;
    1
}
/****************************************************************/
/****************************************************************/
\(/{ }^{*}\) Computes the cube root of \(x r+j+z i i\) Returns the real and imaginary parts in yr and yi, respectively.*/
static
cube_root(xr, xi, yr. yi) cuberoot
double xr, xi, "yr, "yi:
\{
double mag, phs, \(\cos (), \sin (), \operatorname{atanz}()\), pow(), fabs();
if ( \(\mathrm{xi}=0.0\) )
1
*yi \(=0.0 ;\)
tyr \(=\) pow(fabs(xr), 1.0/3.0); . /npow() needs positive arg*/
if ( \(\mathrm{xr}<0.0\) ) \({ }^{*}{ }^{2} r^{*}=-1.0 ;\)
1
else
\(\left.\operatorname{mag}=\operatorname{pow}^{\left(x r^{*} x r\right.}+\mathrm{xi}^{*} \mathrm{xi}, 1 / 6.0\right) ;\)
phs \(=\operatorname{atan} 2(x i, x r) 3.0 ;\)
"yr \(=\mathrm{mag}^{*} \cos (\mathrm{phs})\);
\({ }^{*} \mathrm{ysi}^{2}=\mathrm{mag}^{*} \sin (\mathrm{phs})\);
1
1
```



/ Returns TRUE if eigenvalues are too close for the algorithm to be accurate; otherwise FALSE. The relative and absolute tolerances are chosen to be conservative.*/
\#define REL_TOL 0.01
\#define ABS_TOL 0.01
static
ev_close(cplx, ev) ev_close
int cplx;
double ev[];
double fabs():
if (cpix)
$\{$
if (2.0*fabs(ev[2]) < REL_TOL*fabs(ev[1]) + ABS_TOL)
return (TRUE);
1
else
if (fabs(ev[0] - ev[1]) < (REL_TOL*fabs(ev[0]) + ABS_TOL) ||
fabs(ev[0] - ev[2]) < (REL_TOL*fabs(ev[0]) + ABS_TOL)
fabs(ev[1] - ev[2]) < (REL_TOL*fabs(ev[1]) + ABS_TOL)
return (TRUE);
1
return (FALSE);
3


$/ \not /$ Frites the $3 x 3$ matrix a to stdout. */
mat_write(a) mat_urite
double a[][3];
1
int $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j}$;
printf("\amat_write():\n");
for ( $i=0 ; i<3 ; i++$ )
f
for ( $j=0 ; j<3 ; j++$ )
printf("\%15s", a[i][j]);
printf("\n"):
\}
1
分***************************************************************/

/*Testing routina*/
\#ifdef TEST

```
main()
main
```

1

```
    int cplx, i, j;
    double t, a[3][3];
    MAT_EXP *m, *nit_mat_exp();
    fprintf(stderr, "\nEnter matrix elements:\n");
    for (i = 0; i < 3; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < 3; j++)
        }
            fprintf(stderr, ""a[%d][%d]: ", i, j);
            scant("%lf", &a[i][j]):
    if ((m)}=\mathrm{ init_mat_exp(a))== NULL)
        fprintf(stderr, "no more memory or eigenvalues too close\n");
        exit(1);
```

```
    }
    do
    ffrintf(stderr, "Enter t (0.0 to quit): ");
            scanf("%lf", &t);
            mat_exp(a, t, m);
            mat-write(a);
    } while (t != 0.0);
|
#endif
```







[^0]:    tResearch supported in part by the Hertz Foundation, by the Office of Naval Research under Contract N00014-78-C-0572 and by National Science Foundation Grant ECS8542885.

[^1]:    SEvaluating matrix exponentials is currently a hot research topic for numerical analysts. It is likely that robust and efficient computation methods will become available in the near fur. ture.
    $\dagger$ Tro make the routine robust, it could be altered to solve $\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}=A x, x(0)=I$ whenever the eigenvalues are close.
    \#This is not as easy as it sounds. Each timestep of the variational equation integration requires integration of the original differential equation. This nested integration becomes even more complicated when a variable timestep integration routine is used.

[^2]:    $\dagger\left[f(\cdot)\right.$ does not hit a boundary during the interval $\left[\tau_{i-1,} \tau_{i}\right]$ (Figure $2(c)$ ), then $\tau_{i-1}=\tau_{i}$ and we have $\Phi_{i}=\Phi_{L}=\exp \left(J_{r_{i}}\left(T_{i}-T_{i-1}\right)\right)$ which satisfles equation ( $\theta$ ).

[^3]:    THere is no strict deflinition of closs. We believe the tolerances used in the source code are very conservative.

