

Exam 2 solutions now posted — check!

HW 10 due Thu as usual

HW 11 due next Tue b/c of Thanksgiving (short)

Last 2 lectures will be given by Prof. Ray Heitmann (I am traveling :))
(#25-26)

Last time: Dynamical systems $\vec{x}_{n+1} = A\vec{x}_n$

Fact: Eigenspaces of A with real λ and $|\lambda| \neq 1$ are attracting/repelling directions for the dynamical system:

• $|\lambda| < 1$: attracting 

• $|\lambda| > 1$: repelling 

Complex eigenvalues/eigenvectors

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{5} \\ \frac{3}{4} & \frac{11}{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 - \frac{8}{5}\lambda + 1 = 0$$

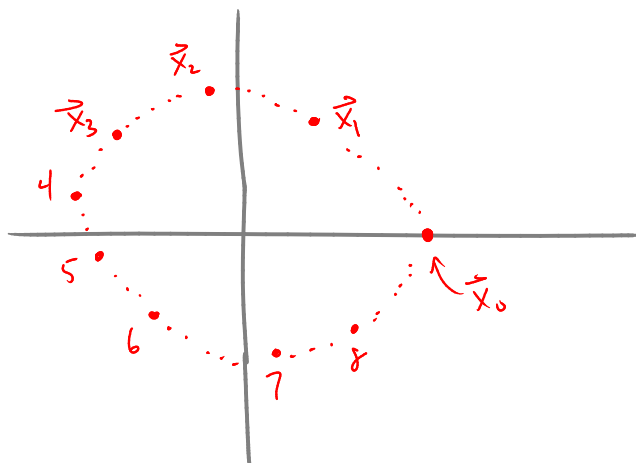
$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{4}{5} \pm \frac{3}{5}i$$

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} - \lambda & -\frac{3}{5} \\ \frac{3}{4} & \frac{11}{10} - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

aside: here we see that the cplx eigenvals come in a complex conjugate pair.
Even for bigger matrices, this always happens:
e.g. 100×100 matrix could have
80 real eigenvals
and 20 cplx ones, in 10 conjugate pairs

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{4}{5} + \frac{3}{5}i : \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} - i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{4}{5} - \frac{3}{5}i : \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} + i \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\vec{x}_{n+1} = A\vec{x}_n$$

$$\vec{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$

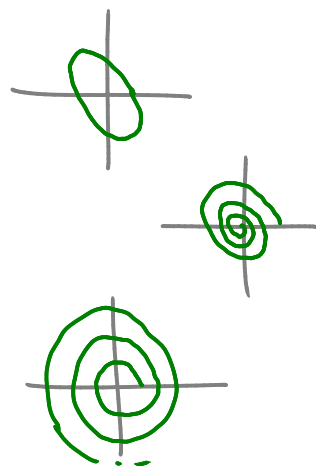
⋮

Fact: If A is a 2×2 matrix with complex eigenvalues $\lambda, \bar{\lambda}$, and $\vec{x}_{n+1} = A\vec{x}_n$:

• If $|\lambda| = 1$, the \vec{x}_n all lie on an ellipse

• If $|\lambda| < 1$, the \vec{x}_n spiral into the origin

• If $|\lambda| > 1$, the \vec{x}_n spiral out of the origin



(Recall that if λ is complex, $\lambda = a + bi$,

then $|\lambda|$ means $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$. So e.g. $\lambda = \frac{4}{5} + \frac{3}{5}i$

has $|\lambda| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{5}\sqrt{25} = 1$)

Why?

Look at a model example:

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(C - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & -b \\ b & a - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a - \lambda)^2 + b^2 = 0$$

Could solve this by quadratic formula: but also can use difference of squares

$$= [(a-\lambda) + ib][(a-\lambda) - ib]$$

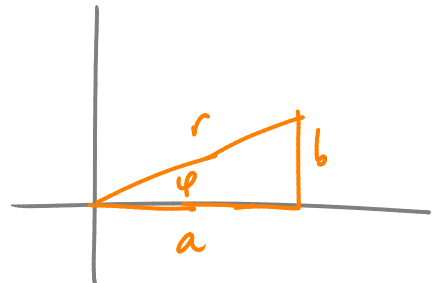
$$= [(a+ib) - \lambda][(a-ib) - \lambda]$$

$$\lambda = a \pm ib$$

To understand how C acts on the plane:

$$\text{Let } r = |\lambda| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

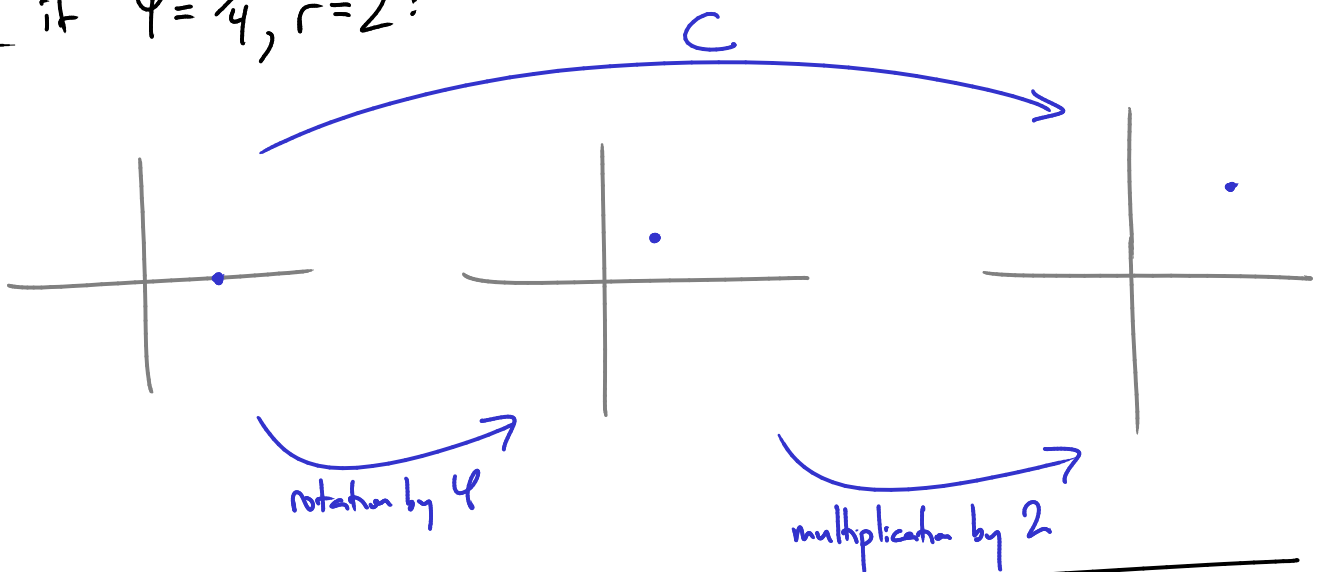
$$\varphi = \tan^{-1}(b/a)$$



$$C = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} = r \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{r} & -\frac{b}{r} \\ \frac{b}{r} & \frac{a}{r} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{r} & -\frac{b}{r} \\ \frac{b}{r} & \frac{a}{r} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} r & 0 \\ 0 & r \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{scaling by } r} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{rotation by } \varphi}$$

Ex if $\varphi = \frac{\pi}{4}$, $r = 2$:



So if we define $\vec{y}_{n+1} = C\vec{y}_n$ then $\vec{y}_0, \vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2, \dots$ will lie on:

- A circle if $r=1$ (i.e. $|\lambda|=1$) — only rotation, no scaling
- An inward spiral if $r<1$
- An outward spiral if $r>1$

That was special to the matrix C ; but in fact any 2×2 matrix w/ complex eigenvalues is similar to C :

Fact: Say A is a 2×2 matrix with complex eigenvalues $\lambda = a - bi$
 $\bar{\lambda} = a + bi$
 and correspondingly complex eigenvector \vec{v} with $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$

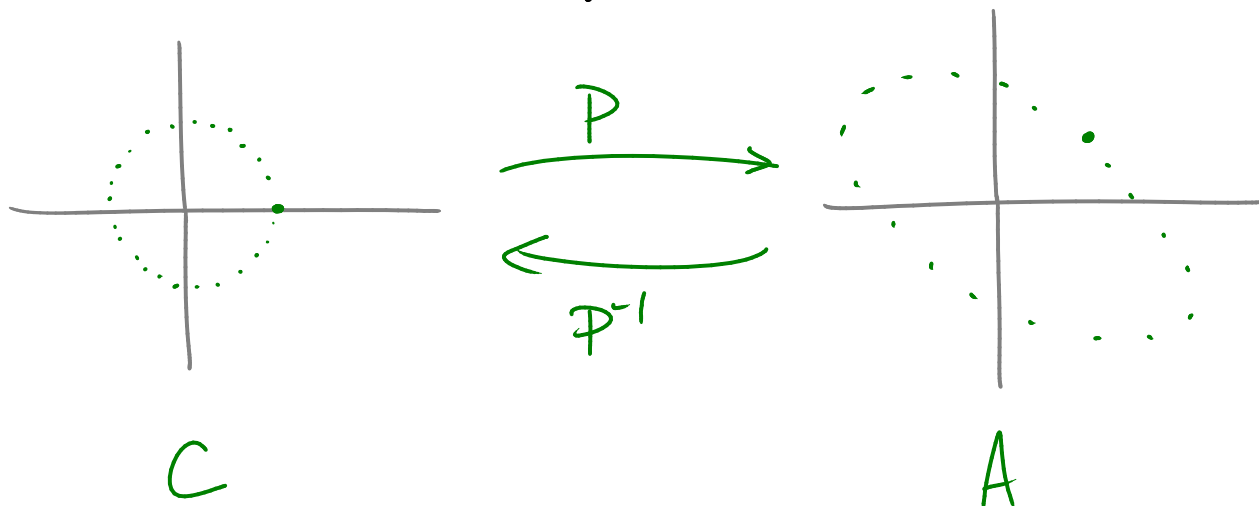
Then $A = PCP^{-1}$

where $P = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Re}\vec{v} & \text{Im}\vec{v} \end{bmatrix}$ $C = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$

(An analogue of diagonalization: pass from the "hard" system

$\vec{x}_{n+1} = A\vec{x}_n$ to the "easier" one $\vec{y}_{n+1} = C\vec{y}_n$

by the change of variables $\vec{y} = P^{-1}\vec{x}$)



One more word about eigenvectors:

Say we begin w/ the system $\vec{X}_{n+1} = A\vec{X}_n$

$$\vec{X}_n = \begin{pmatrix} X_n^{(1)} \\ X_n^{(2)} \\ X_n^{(3)} \end{pmatrix}$$

e.g. if $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\text{then } X_{n+1}^{(1)} = X_n^{(1)} + 2X_n^{(2)} + 3X_n^{(3)}$$

$$X_{n+1}^{(2)} = 4X_n^{(1)} + 5X_n^{(2)} + 6X_n^{(3)}$$

$$X_{n+1}^{(3)} = 7X_n^{(1)} + 8X_n^{(2)} + 9X_n^{(3)}$$

This looks complicated: all the variables are mixed together (coupled)!

But: if we diagonalize A , $A = PDP^{-1}$

and write $\vec{y}_n = P^{-1}\vec{X}_n$ (new set of variables)

$$\vec{y}_n = \begin{pmatrix} y_n^{(1)} \\ y_n^{(2)} \\ y_n^{(3)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the sys. becomes $\vec{y}_{n+1} = D\vec{y}_n$

$$y_{n+1}^{(1)} = \lambda_1 y_n^{(1)}$$

$$y_{n+1}^{(2)} = \lambda_2 y_n^{(2)}$$

$$y_{n+1}^{(3)} = \lambda_3 y_n^{(3)}$$

Inner Products, Length and Orthogonality (Sec 6.1)

Say \vec{u}, \vec{v} in \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Define the dot-product

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

Ex $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = -1 + 8 - 10 = \underline{-3}$

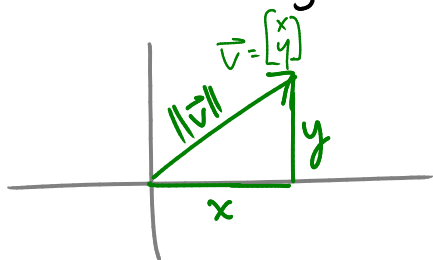
- Fact
- 1) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$
 - 2) $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$
 - 3) $(c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$
 - 4) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \geq 0$, and $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = 0$ if and only if $\vec{u} = \vec{0}$

Why? 1), 2), 3) are "easy"

4) $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2$ all $u_i^2 \geq 0$ so $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \geq 0$
and if $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = 0$ all $u_i = 0$
i.e. $\vec{u} = \vec{0}$

We define the length of \vec{v} by $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}}$

(e.g. if $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ this agrees w/ our usual notion of length:



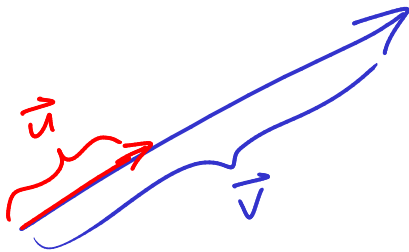
$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{v}\| &= \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} \\ &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \end{aligned}$$

Fact $\|c\vec{v}\| = |c| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$

(Why? $\|c\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{(c\vec{v}) \cdot (c\vec{v})} = \sqrt{c^2(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v})} = \sqrt{c^2} \cdot \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} = |c| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$)

If $\|\vec{v}\| = 1$ we call \vec{v} a unit vector.

For any $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$, we can make a unit vector $\vec{u} = \left(\frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|}\right)\vec{v} = \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$



$$\left(\|\vec{u}\| = \left\|\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}\right\| = \frac{\|\vec{v}\|}{\|\vec{v}\|} = 1\right)$$

Ex Find a unit vector \vec{u} in same direction as $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\vec{u} = \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1^2+2^2+3^2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Distance in \mathbb{R}^n

Say \vec{v}, \vec{w} in \mathbb{R}^n . Define their distance to be $\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|$.

Ex $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\text{dist}(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{17}$