

1.1) Eigenvalues: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ with eigenvalues 3 and -1 by inspection
 $x(t) = c_1 e^{3t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{-t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the general solution

1.2) By inspection, $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2i \\ 1+i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\det(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2i \\ 1+i & 1 \end{pmatrix}) = (\lambda-3)(\lambda-(1+i)) \Rightarrow$ other eigenvalue is $1+i$

$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2i \\ 1+i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = (1+i) \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 3y_1 - 2iy_2 = (1+i)y_1 \\ (1+i)y_2 = (1+i)y_2 \end{cases}$

$\Rightarrow y_2 = \frac{2-i}{2i} y_1 \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2-i}{2i} \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue $1+i$

General solution: $x(t) = c_1 e^{3t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{(1+i)t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2-i}{2i} \end{pmatrix}$

1.3) By inspection $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ has rank 1, and

$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$ also has rank 1

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues are -1 and 2

$\lambda = -1: \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow y_2 = 2y_1 \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector

Check: $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 \\ 2 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\lambda = 2: \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ by inspection

General solution: $x(t) = c_1 e^{-t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{2t} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

1.4) $\det(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -11 & -3 \end{pmatrix}) = \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 11$

$\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 11 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{35}}{2}$ (as you found on the midterm)

$\begin{cases} \frac{-3 + \sqrt{35}}{2} y_1 - y_2 = 0 \\ -11y_1 + \left(\frac{-3 + \sqrt{35}}{2} - 3\right) y_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow y_2 = \frac{-3 + \sqrt{35}}{2} y_1$ (not just \Rightarrow !)

We don't have to make use of second eq. because $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$ means $\ker(\lambda I - A)$ has $\dim \geq 1$, and e.g. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \notin \ker$, so $\dim \ker = 1$

More explicitly, it must be that second eqn is $\frac{-3-\sqrt{35}i}{2}$ times first one, because $(x-\lambda_1)(x-\lambda_2) = x - (\lambda_1+\lambda_2)x + \lambda_1\lambda_2$, we know from $\lambda^2+3\lambda+11=0$ that $\lambda_1\lambda_2=11$, so $-\frac{11}{\lambda_1} = -\lambda_2$

$$y_2 = \frac{-3-\sqrt{35}i}{2} \quad \text{This is the complex conjugation, but for}$$

$\sqrt{35}i \mapsto -\sqrt{35}i$, or for (one root of $\lambda^2+3\lambda+11$) \mapsto (other root).

Because $\lambda^2+3\lambda+11$ doesn't explicitly involve any $\sqrt{35}$'s, the solution must be symmetric under $\sqrt{35} \mapsto -\sqrt{35}$. Here there is an i , so you can also think of it as actual complex

conjugation, but the idea also works for e.g. $w^2-2=0$.

any algebraic relations must still hold under $\sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}$, because

which root we decided to label " $\sqrt{2}$ " was arbitrary. This

is analogous to roots of polynomials with real coeffs coming

in complex conjugate pairs. The study of this principle

is called "Galois theory" and is a major branch of

mathematics. Its namesake, Evariste Galois, was quite the

character: one of the most influential mathematicians of all time,

imprisoned for political activism as a teenager and killed in a duel

over a woman at age 20.

$$\text{General solution: } x(t) = c_1 e^{\frac{-3+\sqrt{35}i}{2}t} + c_2 e^{\frac{-3-\sqrt{35}i}{2}t}$$

$$1.5) \det \left(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 5 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \right) = (\lambda-1)(\lambda+3) + 5 = \lambda^2 + 2\lambda + 2$$

$$= (\lambda+1)^2 + 1 \quad (\text{completing the square by inspection})$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = -1 \pm i$$

$$\left(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 5 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \right) \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} (\lambda-1)y_1 + y_2 = 0 \\ 5y_1 + (3-\lambda)y_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y_2 = (\lambda-1)y_1 \quad \text{if } \lambda = -1 \pm i \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 5 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \pm i \end{pmatrix} = (1 \pm i) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \pm i \end{pmatrix}$$

As explained previously, if \uparrow , then the two eqns must be scalar multiples of each other. This can be dangerous to use, because the second eqn serves as a good check you didn't make a mistake.

As explained while solving 1.4, the two eigenvals and eigenvcs must be complex conjugates (more generally and more precisely: Galois conjugates).

$$1.6) \det(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 1 \\ -1 & \alpha \end{pmatrix}) = (\lambda - \alpha)^2 + 1$$

$$(\lambda - \alpha)^2 + 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = \alpha \pm i$$

$$\begin{cases} ((\alpha \pm i) - \alpha) y_1 - y_2 = 0 \\ y_1 + ((\alpha \pm i) - \alpha) y_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} y_2 = \pm i y_1 \\ y_1 = \mp i y_2 \end{cases} \left. \vphantom{\begin{cases} y_2 = \pm i y_1 \\ y_1 = \mp i y_2 \end{cases}} \right\} \text{Same (multiply by } \bar{i} \text{)}$$

$$\text{General solution: } z(t) = c_1 e^{(\alpha+i)t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{(\alpha-i)t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$$

There is a structure-preserving map

$\varphi: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow 2 \times 2$ matrices with real coeffs. given by

$$\varphi(a+bi) = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}, \text{ i.e. } \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} \text{ is like the complex number } a+bi.$$

See extra problems 2 problem 8 for more.

Complex conjugates

$$3.1) \det(xI - J) = \det \begin{pmatrix} x-\lambda & -1 \\ & x-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (x-\lambda)^2$$

=> Both eigenvalues of J are λ .

3.2) Experimenting looking for a pattern:

$$J^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J^1 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J^2 = J \cdot J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^2 & 2\lambda \\ & \lambda^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J^3 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^2 & 2\lambda \\ & \lambda^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^3 & 3\lambda^2 \\ & \lambda^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Guess: $J^n = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ & \lambda^n \end{pmatrix}$

Suppose \uparrow is true for some particular n .

$$\text{Then } J^{n+1} = J^n \cdot J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ & \lambda^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^{n+1} & \lambda^n + n\lambda^n \\ & \lambda^{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^{n+1} & (n+1)\lambda^n \\ & \lambda^{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

So if e.g. $J^3 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^3 & 3\lambda^2 \\ & \lambda^3 \end{pmatrix}$, that implies $J^4 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^4 & 4\lambda^3 \\ & \lambda^4 \end{pmatrix}$,

which in turn implies $J^5 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^5 & 5\lambda^4 \\ & \lambda^5 \end{pmatrix}$, etc.

$J^n = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ & \lambda^n \end{pmatrix}$ holds for $n=1$ e.g., so by induction it holds for all $n \geq 1$.

$$3.3) \exp(tJ) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} J^n \text{ by def}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ & \lambda^n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n \lambda^n}{n!} & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n n \lambda^{n-1}}{n!} \\ & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n \lambda^n}{n!} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(+\lambda)^n}{n!} & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n t \frac{(+\lambda)^{n-1}}{n(n-1)!} \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(+\lambda)^n}{n!} & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} e^{+\lambda} & t e^{+\lambda} \\ e^{+\lambda} & e^{+\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$3.4) \quad x(t) = e^{+J} c = \begin{pmatrix} e^{+\lambda} & t e^{+\lambda} \\ e^{+\lambda} & e^{+\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(e^{0J} = I, \text{ so } x(0) = I c = c \text{ as required})$$

$$3.5) \quad \det(\lambda I - \begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix})$$

$$= (\lambda + 14)(\lambda - 10) + 9 \cdot 16$$

$$= \lambda^2 + 4\lambda - 140 + 160 - 16$$

$$= \lambda^2 + 4\lambda + 4$$

$$= (\lambda + 2)^2$$

\Rightarrow Both eigenvalues are -2

$$-2I - \begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 12 & -9 \\ -16 & -12 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\ker \begin{pmatrix} 12 & -9 \\ -16 & -12 \end{pmatrix}$ is spanned by $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ by inspection

It's a theorem that for any A over \mathbb{C} , $A = P J P^{-1}$

for some J in Jordan normal form (i.e. it is not true that every matrix is diagonalizable, but it is true that every matrix is Jordan-normal-form-able).

Both eigs. of $\begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$ are -2 , so the only two possible J 's

are $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$.

We only have one eigenvector (contrast with $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$, which has eigenvectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$), so it must be that $J = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$.

P is the matrix that goes from "eigenvector coordinates" to "standard coordinates", i.e. it turns $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ (interpreted as "one of the first eigenvector and zero of the second") into $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$, the eigenvector we found.

$\Rightarrow P = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & p_1 \\ 4 & p_2 \end{pmatrix}$ for some p_1, p_2 . Let's figure out what p_1, p_2 are.

$$A = PJP^{-1} \Leftrightarrow AP = PJ$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & p_1 \\ 4 & p_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & p_1 \\ 4 & p_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -8 & -14p_1 + 9p_2 \\ -8 & -16p_1 + 10p_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -6 & 3 - 2p_1 \\ -8 & 4 - 2p_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} -14p_1 + 9p_2 = 3 - 2p_1 \\ -16p_1 + 10p_2 = 4 - 2p_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -12 & 9 \\ -16 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\frac{1}{3})$$

$$\Rightarrow -4p_1 + 3p_2 = 1$$

Any p_1, p_2 which solve this eqn. will work, by construction.

e.g. $(p_1, p_2) = (-1, -1)$ or $(-\frac{1}{4}, 0)$ or $(0, \frac{1}{3})$.

I'll pick $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$, giving $\begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$,

which you can check by multiplying.

$$e^{tA} = e^{tPJP^{-1}} = P e^{tJ} P^{-1}$$

$$(PJP^{-1})^n = PJP^{-1}PJP^{-1} \dots = PJ^n P^{-1},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } \exp(tPJP^{-1}) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} (PJP^{-1})^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} PJ^n P^{-1} \\ &= P \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} J^n P^{-1} = P e^{tJ} P^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$x' = Ax \Rightarrow x(t) = e^{tA} x(0) = P e^{tJ} P^{-1} x(0),$$

So the general solution is

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} e^{t \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ & -2 \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} x(0) \quad \left(\text{Recall that } \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-2t} & t e^{-2t} \\ & e^{-2t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} x(0) \end{aligned}$$

Recall the notation $\lambda = -2$, $J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -14 & 9 \\ -16 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$, $P = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

and set $v = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$, $w = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Looking at the earlier calculations carefully, one can find that it is no surprise $(*)$ came out to be $(A - \lambda I)w = v$; this always happens, basically by tracing through the calculation we did, but generically.

Just as $v \in \ker(A - \lambda I)$, $w \in \ker((A - \lambda I)^2)$. The vector w is called a "generalized eigenvector".

The map $S \mapsto P S P^{-1}$ ("conjugation by P ") is basically letting S act on the basis given by the columns p_1, p_2 of P . If $T := P S P^{-1}$, then Tv can be calculated as

$v \xrightarrow{P^{-1}} c$ where $c = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$ is the vector of the coefficients when expressing v in the basis (p_1, p_2) , i.e. $v = c_1 p_1 + c_2 p_2$.
 $T \downarrow \quad \downarrow S \quad \downarrow$
 $Tv \leftarrow S c$ The top arrow P^{-1} is changing coordinates to (c_1, c_2) , then S is what it needs to be to ensure $T = P S P^{-1}$, and then P on the bottom transforms coords back

From this perspective, let's take coordinates where A acts as J . Note that $A - \lambda I = PJP^{-1} - \lambda PIP^{-1} = P(J - \lambda I)P^{-1}$, and $\det(A - \lambda I) = \det(P)\det(J - \lambda I)\det(P^{-1}) = \det(J - \lambda I)$.

The matrix $J - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is "nilpotent"; some power of it is the zero matrix: $(J - \lambda I)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

The zero matrix is the only 2×2 matrix with a 2-dimensional kernel (because $B\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is the first column of B , etc.), so if we want a basis for our space (the analogue of an eigenbasis), we need to build the zero matrix somehow.

This is why this Jordan normal form construction is useful:

- Always "Jordan-normal-form-able": $A = PJP^{-1}$ over \mathbb{C}
- Can give a basis of generalized eigenvectors by computing $\ker(A - \lambda I)^2$ (for 2D)

Moreover, $\ker(A - \lambda I)^2$ is pretty easy to compute, because

$$w \in \ker(A - \lambda I)^2 \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)^2 w = 0 \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)[(A - \lambda I)w] = 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)w \in \ker(A - \lambda I) \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)w \text{ is proportional to } v.$$

This is what the course notes do very explicitly, and why we could have predicted that (*) would be $(A - \lambda I)w = v$.

If we had $J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & \\ & \lambda & \\ & & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$, then a basis of generalized eigenvectors would come from computing $\ker(A - \lambda I)^3$,

$$\text{because } J - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, (J - \lambda I)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$(J - \lambda I)^3 = \text{zero matrix}$, etc. for larger and larger Jordan blocks.