

- Theorem: All evolutionary systems can be written in the form

$$v'(t) = Av(t), v(0) = x,$$

where A is a linear operator on a vector space X .

- Vector space: a field where numbers, functions, vectors, etc. can be operated on by addition, subtraction, scalar multiplication, etc.
 - $A: X \rightarrow Y$ is a linear operator if:
 - $A(x+y) = A(x) + A(y)$
 - $A(\lambda x) = \lambda A(x)$
- In engineering, called Principle of Superposition.
When recording drums and guitar, doesn't matter if record playing separately or record playing together.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \cdot A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 & A(x_1, y) = A(x_1) + A(y) & \cdot A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \\ & A(\lambda x) = \lambda A(x) \text{ is linear} & \\ A(x_1, x_2) & = A((x_1, 0) + (0, x_2)) & \rightarrow \\ & = A(x_1, 0) + A(0, x_2) & \rightarrow \\ & = \underbrace{x_1}_{ac} \underbrace{A(1, 0)}_{bd} + \underbrace{x_2}_{ace} \underbrace{A(0, 1)}_{bdf} & \rightarrow x_1 \underbrace{A(1, 0)}_{ace} + x_2 \underbrace{A(0, 1)}_{bdf} \\ & = (ax_1 + bx_2, cx_1 + dx_2) & = (ax_1 + bx_2, cx_1 + dx_2, ex_1 + fx_2) \\ & = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} & = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & e \\ c & d & f \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

- Use matrices to map one space into another
- In algebra, do math with numbers. In linear algebra, do math with linear maps.
- Use easy functions to model linear maps.
- Linear operators: limits (think limit laws), derivatives, integrals

"If it works for numbers, it works for linear maps."

Solution: $v(t) = e^{+At}$
 $v'(t) = Ax e^{+At} = A_x v(t)$
 $e^{+At} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(I + \frac{tA}{n}\right)^n$

$$\begin{aligned} e^x &= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \\ e^x &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n \\ e^{+At} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(I + \frac{tA}{n}\right)^n X = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(I - \frac{tA}{n}\right)^{-n} X \\ &\text{converges much faster} \end{aligned}$$

Homework:

- Let $v(0) = v'(0) = 1$,
 then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^x$

$$\text{Proof: } \ln(v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^n) = h(e^x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} n \ln(v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)) &= x \\ \ln(v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)) &\stackrel{L'H}{=} \frac{\frac{v'(x)}{v(x)} \left(-\frac{x}{n}\right)}{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &\rightarrow \frac{1}{x} \end{aligned}$$

Our goal is to use this formula to show faster convergence than Mathematica

$$= \frac{v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)}{v\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)} x \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{Ex: } v(x) = \frac{2+x}{2-x}$$

$$v'(x) = \frac{2-x - (-1)(2+x)}{(2-x)^2} = \frac{4}{(2-x)^2} \quad v(0) = v'(0) = 1$$

- Homework: $|v(\frac{x}{n})^n - e^x| \rightarrow \text{estimation of convergence}$
 $= |v(\frac{x}{n})^n - (e^{\frac{x}{n}})^n| \leq \zeta_m \cdot \frac{t^m}{n^{m-1}} \|A^m x\|$ The more complicated/higher m is, the less n it takes to converge (faster convergence)
- Is A more effective to have n=1 with complicated m, or less complicated m with high n?
 ↗ Neubrander ↗ others

Goal: Compute e^{tA} , where A is 100×100 matrix

We are finding a method to beat that of Mathematica and MATLAB

Step 1: Compute e^{tz}

Lemma: $r(0) = r'(0) = 1 \rightarrow r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^{tz}$

Proof: L'Hopital's rule

Ex: While $|10^{10}|^n \left(\frac{1}{1+n}\right)$ goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, it does so very slowly

Lemma: If $r(0) = r'(0) = 1$, $R_2 = 0$, $|r''(z)| \leq 1$ if $R_2 \leq 0$, then $r(z) \rightarrow e^z$ (see back)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof: } & |r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right)^n - e^{tz}| = |r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right) - (e^{\frac{tz}{n}})^n| \\ & = |r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right) - e^{\frac{tz}{n}}|^n \left| \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left(r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right) - e^{\frac{tz}{n}}\right)^{n-1-j} (e^{\frac{tz}{n}})^j \right| \\ & \leq n \cdot |r\left(\frac{tz}{n}\right) - e^{\frac{tz}{n}}|^n \leq n \cdot M \left(\frac{tz}{n}\right)^{m+1} \end{aligned}$$

Binomial Theorem:

$$a^n - b^n = (a-b)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \dots + b^{n-1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} e^z &= 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{z^n}{n!} \\ r(z) &= a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots + a_n z^n \end{aligned}$$

e^z and $r(z)$ match up for first nn terms
We want large m and small

Theorem (Thomée, Kato, Hirsch 1979)

Matlab: $+ |r(z)| \leq 1$ for $R_2 \leq 0$ (if-stable) R_2 : real part of z

Mathematica: $* * |r(z) - e^z| \leq M_r |z|^m$ if $|z|$ is small (approximation of the exponential of order m)
"bad r" / "large n" $= \|r\left(\frac{tA}{n}\right)^n - e^{tA}\| \leq M_r \cdot \frac{1}{n^m} \|A^{m+1}\|$

Our approach: Theresa Santmaier said that growth in t^{m+1} and $\|A^{m+1}\|$ is small compared to $m=21/n=1$. extreme decrease in M_r if $n=1$.

$$\|r(tA) - e^{tA}\| \leq M_r \cdot t^{m+1} \cdot \|A^{m+1}\|$$

$$r(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{b_1}{\lambda_1 - z} + \dots + \frac{b_a}{\lambda_a - z}$$

$$r(tA) = \frac{b_1}{\lambda_1 - tA} + \dots + \frac{b_a}{\lambda_a - tA}$$

Partial fraction decomposition

$$\Rightarrow M_r \leq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{(a-1)!} \cdot \frac{1}{(a-2)^{a-1}}$$

$$= \frac{b_1}{\frac{1}{t} (\frac{1}{t} - A)^{-1}} + \dots + \frac{b_a}{\frac{1}{t} (\frac{1}{t} - A)^{-1}}$$

Inverse matrix

Must learn how to program partial fraction decomposition and inverse matrix in Mathematica

Lemma: if $r(0)=r'(0)=1$, $R_2 \leq 0$, $|r(z)| \leq 1$, then $|e^z - r(z)| \leq M \cdot t^{m+1} \cdot \frac{1}{n^m} |z|^{m+1}$

$$\begin{aligned}x'_1 &= a_1 x + b_1 y \\x'_2 &= a_2 x + b_2 y\end{aligned}$$

We solve this like we did with systems of ordinary equations in high school. We can prove that what we do with algebra we can do with linear operators

Solution: $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = A \rightarrow e^{tA}$

9/27/14

Lemma (Mahvahār)

$$\sqrt{v(U)} = v'(U) = 1 \Rightarrow r\left(\frac{ta}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^{ta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Lemna (Pâle)

Number $|z|$ for $\operatorname{Re} z \leq 0$

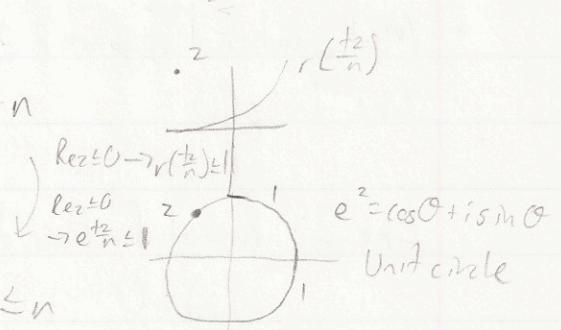
$|f(z) - e^z| \leq C |z|^{m+1}$ for $|z|$ small (radius of convergence for e^z)

$$\Rightarrow \left| r\left(\frac{t_2}{n}\right)^n - e^{t_2} \right| = \left| r\left(\frac{t_2}{n}\right)^n - \left(e^{\frac{t_2}{n}}\right)^n \right| \\ \leq \left| r\left(\frac{t_2}{n}\right) - e^{\frac{t_2}{n}} \right| \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left| r\left(\frac{t_2}{n}\right)^2 \right| \left| \left(e^{\frac{t_2}{n}}\right)^{n-1-j} \right| \leq n$$

Now apply this to $\frac{t_2}{n}$

$$\left| r \left(\frac{f_2}{n} \right)^n - e^{f_2} \right| \leq C + m^{m+1} \cdot |z|^{m+1} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{m+1}} \leq n$$

$$\left| r\left(\frac{t^2}{n}\right)^n - e^{t^2} \right| \leq C \cdot t^{m-1} \cdot \left|\frac{t^2}{n}\right|^{m+1} \cdot \frac{1}{n^m}$$



$$\Rightarrow \|r(\frac{tA}{n})_X^n - e_X^n\| \leq C + \text{const} \|A_X^{n+1}\| \cdot \frac{1}{n^m}$$

Lemma (Pafé)

Best possible rational approximation

Faint pattern after 30 values

Lemna (Fule)

Idea: not

$$\|r(tA)x - e^{tA}x\| \leq C r t^{\alpha+1} \|A^{\alpha+1}x\|$$

Lemma (Neubrander/Sandmeyer)

(r, β sum (Geman \rightarrow sd) small)

Mathematica Program:

Line 1: $p(z) =$

$$a(z)\omega z$$

Line 2: Partial fraction decomposition:

$$a(z) = 0$$

$$\frac{p(z)}{a(z)} = \frac{B_1}{\lambda_1 - z} + \dots + \frac{B_a}{\lambda_a - z}$$

$$a(\lambda) = 0$$

$$a(z) = ((\lambda_1 - z) \dots (\lambda_a - z))$$

$$\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_a$$

$$p(z) = B_1((\lambda_2 - z) \dots (\lambda_a - z)) + \dots + B_a((\lambda_1 - z) \dots (\lambda_{a-1} - z))$$

Plug in for each λ_i so $B_i = \frac{p(\lambda_i)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (\lambda_j - \lambda_i)}$

$$r(z) = \frac{p(z)}{a(z)} = \frac{B_1}{\lambda_1 - z} + \dots + \frac{B_a}{\lambda_a - z}$$

$$e^{tA} \approx r(tA) = \frac{B_1}{\lambda_1 + tA} + \dots + \frac{B_a}{\lambda_a + tA} = \frac{B_1}{t} \left(\frac{1}{t} I - A \right)^{-1} + \dots + \frac{B_a}{t} \left(\frac{1}{t} I - A \right)^{-1}$$

↑
built into machine now

10/4/11 Best way to find inverse of matrix B by Gaussian elimination.

Ex: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 : 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 : 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 : 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ You can add, subtract rows
and multiply rows by constants
↓
Make th3, th3
Result B inverse

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 : 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 : 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 : 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 : 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 : -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 : 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 : 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 : -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 : 0 & +1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 : 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 : -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 : 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 : 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 : -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & -1 : \frac{1}{2} & -1 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 : \frac{3}{4} & 0 & -\frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 : -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 : -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{4} & 0 & -\frac{1}{4} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse Laplace Transforms

Russian way of finding inverse matrices:

$$R(\lambda, A) = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k-1} A_k, \text{ where } c(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k \lambda^k$$

"characteristic polynomial of A"

where $c_{n-1} = \text{Spur}(A) = \text{Trace}(A) = (\text{sum of diagonals of } A)$

$$A_0 = I$$

$A_1 = A - c_{n-1} \cdot I \rightarrow$ adds sum of diagonals back to diagonals of A

$$c_{n-2} = -\text{Trace}\left(\frac{A_1 \circ A}{2}\right)$$

$$A_2 = A_1 \circ A - c_{n-2} \cdot I$$

$$c_{n-3} = \text{Trace}\left(\frac{A_2 \circ A}{3}\right)$$

$$A_3 = A_2 \circ A - c_{n-3} \cdot I$$

$$\vdots$$

$$c_0 = \text{Trace}\left(\frac{A_{n-1} \circ A}{n}\right)$$

$$A_n = A_{n-1} \circ A - c_0 \cdot I$$

Programming problem: how do we get the machine to stay in symbolic form (fractions) instead of rounding to decimal form which results in less accurate and slower computations

*Homework: program this procedure for $2 \times 2, 3 \times 3, 4 \times 4$ matrices with integer values

• Check if Trace is correct ✓ • Do by hand first

We can then extend this to irrationals by multiplying and dividing matrix by some scalars

What is the procedure/algorithm Mathematica and MATLAB use?

$$e^{tA} = \sum_i \frac{b_i}{i!} R\left(\frac{\lambda_i}{i}, A\right) = \frac{b_1}{1!} \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{1} I - A\right)^{-1} + \dots + \frac{b_n}{n!} \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{n} I - A\right)^{-1}$$

10/18/11

Testing for a General 2×2 Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R(\lambda, A) = (\lambda I - A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - d & b \\ c & \lambda - a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R(\lambda, A) = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k-1} A_k = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{1-k} A_k = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} (\lambda I + A_1)$$

$$c(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_k \lambda^k = \lambda^2 - \sum_{k=0}^1 C_k \lambda^k = \lambda^2 - C_0 - C_1 \lambda$$

$$C_1 = \text{trace}(A) = a+d \quad A_1 = A - C_0 I = \begin{bmatrix} -d & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C_0 = \text{trace}\left(\frac{A_1 \cdot A}{2}\right) = \text{trace}\left[\begin{bmatrix} \frac{-ad+bc}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-ad+bc}{2} \end{bmatrix}\right] = -ad+bc$$

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - (-ad+bc) - (a+d)\lambda = \lambda^2 + ab - bc - \lambda a - \lambda d$$

$$R(\lambda, A) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 + ab - bc - \lambda a - \lambda d} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -d & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} \right) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 + ab - bc - \lambda a - \lambda d} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - d & b \\ c & \lambda - a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C_{n-k} = \frac{\text{Trace}(A_{k-1} A)}{k} \quad A_k = A_{k-1} A - C_{n-k} I$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} n=2 \\ k=1 \end{array} \quad C_1 = \text{trace}(IA) = a+d \quad A_1 = IA - C_0 I = \begin{bmatrix} -d & 0 \\ 0 & -a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C_0 = \text{trace}(A_1 A)/2 = -2ad \quad A_2 = A_1 A - C_0 I = \begin{bmatrix} -ad & -bd \\ -ac & -ad \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2ad & 0 \\ 0 & -2ad \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ad & -bd \\ -ac & ad \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^2 + 2ad - (a+d)\lambda = \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + 2ad \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{a+d \pm \sqrt{(a+d)^2 - 4(2ad)}}{2} = \frac{a+d \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 6ad + d^2}}{2}$$

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - a - d + 2ad\lambda = \lambda^2 + 2ad\lambda - a - d \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{-2ad \pm \sqrt{4ad^2 - 4a - 4}}{2}$$

$$e^{tA} \sim \sum_1^a \frac{b}{t} R\left(\frac{\lambda}{t}, A\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} L^{-1}\left(\frac{\lambda^{n-k-1}}{c(\lambda)}\right) A_k$$

Is it better to store symbolic notation on hard drive space (cheaper) or run it every time and use up RAM (expensive)?

Make small changes to speed up process? Ex: $\frac{\text{Trace}(A_{k-1} A)}{k}$ or $\text{Trace}\left(\frac{A_{k-1} A}{k}\right)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d-b \\ -c-a \end{bmatrix} \quad (\lambda I - A)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda-2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda-2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda-1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(\lambda I - A) = c(\lambda) \checkmark$$

$$R(\lambda, A) = (\lambda I - A)^{-1} \checkmark$$

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $c_0 = 3$ $A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ $c_1 = -2$ $A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad n=2$$

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k \lambda^k = \lambda^2 - c_0 - c_1 \lambda = \lambda^2 - 3 + 4\lambda = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = -2 \pm \sqrt{7}$$

$$R(\lambda, A) = \frac{1}{c(\lambda)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k} A_k = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 - 3 + 4\lambda} (\lambda I + A_1) = \frac{1}{-2 \pm \sqrt{7}} \begin{bmatrix} -2+\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & -1+\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

* $c(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda-1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda-2 \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = 1, \lambda = 2$

$$c(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - c_0 \lambda - c_1 \quad \text{If } c_n : c_0 = 3, c_1 = -2 \quad c(\lambda) = \lambda^n - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k \lambda^{n-k-1} \quad e^{tA} = \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 0 \\ 0 & e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda-2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda-1 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k-1} A_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k} A_k = \lambda I + A_1 \rightarrow A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $(\lambda I - A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{-12 - 5\lambda - 4\lambda^2 + \lambda^3} \begin{bmatrix} -3\lambda + \lambda^2 & -6 + 2\lambda & -6 + \lambda \\ 6 + 2\lambda & -1 - 4\lambda + \lambda^2 & -1 + 3\lambda \\ 4\lambda & 8 & -4 - \lambda + \lambda^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k-1} A_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{2-k} A_k = I \lambda^2 + \lambda A_1 + A_2 \rightarrow \lambda A_1 + A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3\lambda & -6 + 2\lambda & 6 + \lambda \\ 6 + 2\lambda & -1 - 4\lambda & -1 + 3\lambda \\ 4\lambda & 8 & -4 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -6 & 6 \\ 6 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

In conclusion, the matrix multiplication symbol in Mathematica is a period.

$c(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A)$: characteristic polynomial

$R(\lambda, A) = (\lambda I - A)^{-1}$: resolvent of A

Worked backwards from example with known $R(\lambda, A) = (\lambda I - A)^{-1}$ and $c(\lambda)$. Find c_k using A_k from $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \lambda^{n-k-1} A_k$

* We used the wrong Mathematica matrix multiplication function

11/15/11

Complex Analysis (U.S.) - Theory of Functions (England)

Can use linear algebra or complex analysis to solve equations

Linear Algebra: All matrices can be decomposed just like numbers can be decomposed

$$A = U \tilde{U}^{-1}$$

$$A^2 = (U \tilde{U}^{-1})(U \tilde{U}^{-1}) = (U \tilde{U}^{-1}) \tilde{U} = U \tilde{U}^2 \tilde{U}^{-1}$$

λ : eigenvalues $Ax = \lambda x$
 U : eigenvectors

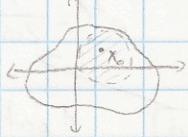
Complex Analysis: $e^{tA} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int e^{tz} R(z, A) dz$ We've developed a clever way of evaluating this

Well... cheating definition:

Analytic (holomorphic) functions: A function f is called analytic in a region $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ (simply connected set in complex number plane) if for all $x_0 \in U$ there exists a disk around x_0 such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n \quad \text{for all } x \in U$$

"power series"



$$\text{Ex: } f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \text{ for } |x| < 1 \text{ for real and imaginary}$$



basically, complex analysis is the study of power series in the complex plane.

Meromorphic functions: (similar to analytic functions)

$$-\infty < n < \infty$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n$$

Cauchy's Theorem:

Let Γ be a closed curve around x_0 . Then $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} f(x) dx = a_{-1}$

$$\text{Proof: } \Gamma = x_0 + r(\cos t, \sin t) + t \in [0, 2\pi]$$

$$= x_0 + r(\cos t + i \sin t) \quad (x, y) = x(1, 0) + y(0, 1) = x + iy = z$$

$$= x_0 + r e^{it}$$

$$e^{it} = 1 + it - \frac{1}{2}t^2 - \frac{1}{3!}t^3 + \frac{1}{4!}t^4 + \dots$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{2!} + \frac{r^4}{4!} - \frac{r^6}{6!} + \dots\right) + i(t - \frac{r^3}{3!} + \frac{r^5}{5!} - \dots) = \cos t + i \sin t$$

Operations with complex numbers:

$$\text{Ex: } -2 \cdot -3 = 6$$

Multiply lengths: $2 \cdot 3 = 6$ Add angles: $180^\circ + 180^\circ = 360^\circ \quad \cos(360^\circ) = 1$

This extends to the entire complex plane

$$\text{Ex: } (1, 1) \cdot (-1, 1) = [\sqrt{2}, 45^\circ] \cdot [\sqrt{2}, 135^\circ] = [2, 180^\circ] = (-2, 0)$$

$$\text{Ex: } i^2 = (0, 1)^2 = (0, 1) \cdot (0, 1) = [1, 90^\circ] \cdot [1, 90^\circ] = [1, 180^\circ] = (-1, 0) = -1$$

$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P f(x)dx$ No special application (area, mean value, etc.), just a computation engine

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x_0 + re^{it})ire^{it} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{n=0}^{2\pi} a_n r^{n+1} e^{(n+1)it} dt = a_1$$

For $n \geq 1$, $\int_0^{2\pi} e^{(n+1)it} dt = \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos(n+1)t + i\sin(n+1)t) dt = 0$

This works even if the path is not a circle.

(Cauchy's Integral Theorem): Given f analytic, P closed curve around x_0 :

$$i. \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P f(x)dx = 0$$

$$ii. \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P \frac{f(x)}{x-x_0} dx = f(x_0) = a_0$$

$$iii. \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P \frac{f(x)}{(x-x_0)^{n+1}} dx = \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} = a_n$$

$$f(z) = e^{tz} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P \frac{f(x)}{x-z} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P \frac{e^{tx}}{x-z} dx$$

$$e^{tA} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P \frac{e^{tx}}{x-A} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P e^{tx} (xI - A)^{-1} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P e^{tx} R(x, A) dx$$

Complex Analysis 3: A path around A would be a path around its eigenvalues

$$e^{tA} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P (e^{tz} - r(tz)) (zI - A)^{-1} dz + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_P r(tz) (zI - A)^{-1} dz$$

$$\approx \text{"small if good approximation"} + \sum \frac{b_i}{t} R\left(\frac{b_i}{t}, A\right)$$

Do e^{tA} for 2×2 and 3×3

Oxford - Dr. Trefethen and Dr. Weideman

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Trace}(A) = 1$$

$$A - \text{Trace}(A)I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z-z_0)^n \quad \text{Try to plug in matrix } A \text{ (linear operator)}$$

Dunford Functional Calculus: much easier to do $f(A)$

$$f(AS) := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C f(z)(zI-A)^{-1} dz \quad \text{Output is another matrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= uju^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{This is going backwards; this is the matrix decomposition} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$\Psi: f \rightarrow f(A)$ is an algebra homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ex: } A &= \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad zI - A = \begin{bmatrix} z+4 & -6 \\ 3 & z-5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(zI - A) = \text{characteristic polynomial} \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad = (z+4)(z-5) + 18 = z^2 - z - 20 + 18 = z^2 - z - 2 \\ (zI - A)^{-1} &= \frac{1}{(z+4)(z-2)} \begin{bmatrix} z-5 & 6 \\ -3 & z+4 \end{bmatrix} \quad = (z+1)(z-2) \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad z = -1, 2 \quad \text{Eigenvalues} \end{aligned}$$

$$f(z) = e^{tz} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} z^n = e^{t z_0} e^{t(z-z_0)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(e^{t z_0} \frac{t^n}{n!} \right) (z-z_0)^n$$

$$e^{tA} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz}}{(z+1)(z-2)} \begin{bmatrix} z-5 & 6 \\ -3 & z+4 \end{bmatrix} dz$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Break into components} &= \left[\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz} \frac{z-5}{(z+1)(z-2)}}{z+1} dz \quad \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz} \frac{6}{(z+1)(z-2)}}{z-2} dz \right] \\ &\quad \left[\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz} \frac{-3}{(z+1)(z-2)}}{z+1} dz \quad \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz} \frac{z+4}{(z+1)(z-2)}}{z-2} dz \right] \end{aligned}$$

Must break up into partial fractions so we can evaluate with the form

$$\frac{1}{(z+1)(z-2)} = \frac{A}{z+1} + \frac{B}{z-2} \quad \text{8th of factoring}$$

$$\begin{aligned} z-5 &= A(z-2) + B(z+1) \\ z=2 &\quad -3 = 3B \quad z=-1 \quad -6 = -3A \\ B &= -1 \quad A=2 \end{aligned}$$

Algebra, derivatives still work

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{-t} - e^{2t} & -2e^{-t} + 2e^{2t} \\ e^{-t} - e^{2t} & -e^{-t} + 2e^{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz} \frac{z-5}{(z+1)(z-2)}}{z+1} dz &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz}}{z-2} dz - \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^{tz}}{z-2} dz \\ &= 2e^{-t} - e^{2t} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Generally, } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{az+b}{(z+1)(z-2)} dz &= Ae^{-t} + Be^{2t} \\ A = \frac{a-b}{3} &\quad B = \frac{2a+b}{3} \end{aligned}$$

This is nearly impossible with 100×100 matrices because A is very difficult to factor and do partial fraction decomposition with 100-degree polynomials.

If A does work, this is the fastest way to do it.

$$(e^{tA})' = Ae^{tA}$$

$$+ 0 = A$$

This is used to solve differential equations.

Concrete Problem $x'(t) = -4x(t) + 6y(t)$, $x(0) = x_0$
 $y'(t) = -3x(t) + 5y(t)$, $y(0) = y_0$

Abstract Cauchy Problem $v'(t) = Av(t)$, $v(0) = v_0$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad v(t) = e^{At} v_0 = (x(t), y(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: Heat problem

Concrete Problem $w_t(t, x) = w_{xx}(t, x)$
 $w(0, x) = f(x)$

Big Picture
Neubrander argues that anything in the world that changes with time can be reduced to an abstract Cauchy problem.

Abstract Cauchy Problem $v'(t) = Av(t)$, $v(0) = f$
 $v(t) = w(t, \cdot)$, $A = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$
function for each t

$$\begin{aligned} e^{At} &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int e^{tz} (zI - A)^{-1} dz \quad \text{Most efficient method} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} A^n = u \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} J^n \right] u^{-1}, \text{ where } A = uJu^{-1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(I - \frac{tA}{n} \right)^{-n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(I + \frac{tA}{n} \right)^n \end{aligned}$$

*Transference theory?

11/29/11 Dunford Calculus (everyone uses this)

$$e^{tA} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} e^{tz} R(z, A) dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \underbrace{(e^{tz} - r(tz))}_{\text{small}} R(z, A) dz + \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} r(tz) R(z, A) dz$$

Choose $r(z) = \frac{b_1}{b_1 - z} + \dots + \frac{b_n}{b_n - z}$
 b_1, \dots, b_n such that $|e^z - r(z)|$ is small
 for $\operatorname{Re} z \leq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} r(tz) &= \frac{b_1}{b_1 - tz} + \dots + \frac{b_n}{b_n - tz} \\ &= -\frac{b_1}{t + z - \frac{b_1}{t}} - \dots - \frac{b_n}{t + z - \frac{b_n}{t}} \end{aligned}$$

Cauchy's Integral Theorem: $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} r(tz) R(z, A) dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \left(-\frac{b_1}{t + z - \frac{b_1}{t}} - \dots - \frac{b_n}{t + z - \frac{b_n}{t}} \right) R(z, A) dz$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz = f(z_0) \quad = -\left(\frac{b_1}{t} R\left(\frac{b_1}{t}, A\right) + \dots + \frac{b_n}{t} R\left(\frac{b_n}{t}, A\right) \right) e^{tA}$$

where does the negative sign come from?

Hale-Philips Calculus: (Neubrander uses this)

$$r(z) = \frac{b_1}{b_1 - z} + \dots + \frac{b_n}{b_n - z}$$

$$\frac{b_1}{b_1 - z} = \int_0^\infty e^{zs} (b_1 e^{-b_1 s}) ds \Rightarrow r(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{zs} f(s) ds, \text{ where } f(s) = b_1 e^{-b_1 s} + \dots + b_n e^{-b_n s}$$

$$\Rightarrow r(tz) = \int_0^\infty e^{zs} \frac{1}{t} f\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) ds$$

$$\frac{1}{t} f\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) = \frac{b_1}{t} e^{-\frac{b_1 s}{t}} + \dots + \frac{b_n}{t} e^{-\frac{b_n s}{t}}$$

$$\frac{1}{t} e^{tz} = - \int_t^\infty e^{zs} ds = - \int_0^\infty e^{zs} H_+(s) ds, \text{ where } H_+(s) \geq 0 \text{ up to } t \text{ and } 1 \text{ after } t$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{tz} = -z \int_0^\infty e^{zs} H_+(s) ds$$

?

Integration by parts

$$r(z) = [e^{zs} f(s)]_0^\infty - z \int_0^\infty e^{zs} \alpha(s) ds = -f(0) - z \int_0^\infty e^{zs} \alpha(s) ds$$

$$\alpha(s) = \int_0^s f(r) dr = b_1 \int_0^s e^{-b_1 r} dr + \dots$$

$$r(tz) = -f(0) - tz \int_0^\infty e^{zs} \alpha(s) ds = -f(0) - z \int_0^\infty e^{zs} \alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) ds$$

$$= b_1 \left[-\frac{1}{b_1} e^{-b_1 r} \right]_0^s = \frac{b_1}{b_1} (1 - e^{-b_1 s})$$

$$e^{tz} - r(tz) = -z \int_0^\infty e^{zs} (H_+(s) - \alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)) ds + f(0)$$

$$\alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{b_i}{b_i} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{b_i s}{t}}\right)$$

$$|e^{tA} - r(tA)| = \left| \int_0^\infty (-A e^{sA}) (H_+(s) - \alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)) ds \right| \leq |A| \cdot \int_0^\infty |H_+(s) - \alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)| ds$$

The others are trying to make $|e^{tA} - r(tA)|$ small. We are trying to make $|H_+(s) - \alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)|$ small.
 Must find function $\alpha\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)$ that models $H_+(s)$. Right now our best bet is the Padé approximation.

$$\text{Homework: } r(z) = \frac{b_1}{b_1 - z} \quad r(0) = 1 \rightarrow r(z) = \frac{b_1}{b_1 - z}$$

Choose b such that

$$\int_0^\infty |H_+(s) - (1 - e^{-\frac{b s}{t}})| ds \text{ is small}$$

Optimize it

$$\int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-\frac{b s}{t}}) ds + \int_0^\infty e^{-\frac{b s}{t}} ds \sim (0, 6, \dots) t? \text{ for } b = 1, 6?$$