

Chapter 5.5

1. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & -2 \\ 1 & 3-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$. $\det(A - \lambda I) = (1-\lambda)(3-\lambda) - (-2) = \lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 5$. Use the quadratic formula to find the eigenvalues: $\lambda = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16-20}}{2} = 2 \pm i$. Example 2 gives a shortcut for finding one eigenvector, and Example 5 shows how to write the other eigenvector with no effort.

For $\lambda = 2 + i$: $A - (2 + i)I = \begin{bmatrix} -1-i & -2 \\ 1 & 1-i \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ gives

$$(-1-i)x_1 - 2x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 + (1-i)x_2 = 0$$

As in Example 2, the two equations are equivalent—each determines the same relation between x_1 and x_2 . So use the second equation to obtain $x_1 = -(1-i)x_2$, with x_2 free. The general solution is

$x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1+i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and the vector $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1+i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ provides a basis for the eigenspace.

For $\lambda = 2 - i$: Let $\mathbf{v}_2 = \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The remark prior to Example 5 shows that \mathbf{v}_2 is automatically

an eigenvector for $\overline{2+i}$. In fact, calculations similar to those above would show that $\{\mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for the eigenspace. (In general, for a real matrix A , it can be shown that the set of complex conjugates of the vectors in a basis of the eigenspace for λ is a basis of the eigenspace for $\bar{\lambda}$.)

2. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -5 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 10$, so the eigenvalues of A are $\lambda = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{36-40}}{2} = 3 \pm i$.

For $\lambda = 3 + i$: $A - (3 + i)I = \begin{bmatrix} 2-i & -5 \\ 1 & -2-i \end{bmatrix}$. The equation $(A - (3 + i)I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to

$x_1 + (-2-i)x_2 = 0$, so $x_1 = (2+i)x_2$ with x_2 free. A basis vector for the eigenspace is thus

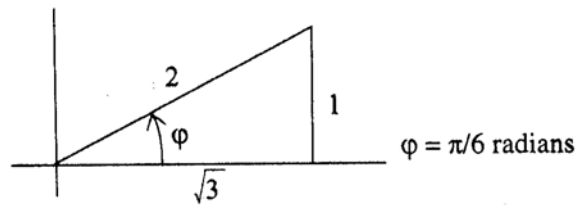
$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2+i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

For $\lambda = 3 - i$: A basis vector for the eigenspace is $\mathbf{v}_2 = \bar{\mathbf{v}}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

7. $A = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & -1 \\ 1 & \sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$. From Example 6, the eigenvalues are $\sqrt{3} \pm i$. The scale factor for the transformation

$\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is $r = |\lambda| = \sqrt{(\sqrt{3})^2 + 1^2} = 2$. For the angle of rotation, plot the point $(a, b) = (\sqrt{3}, 1)$ in the xy -plane and use trigonometry:

$$\varphi = \arctan(b/a) = \arctan(1/\sqrt{3}) = \pi/6 \text{ radians.}$$



25. Write $\mathbf{x} = \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x} + i(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x})$, so that $A\mathbf{x} = A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x}) + iA(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x})$. Since A is real, so are $A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x})$ and $A(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x})$. Thus $A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{x})$ is the real part of $A\mathbf{x}$ and $A(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{x})$ is the imaginary part of $A\mathbf{x}$.

26. a. If $\lambda = a - bi$, then $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} = (a - bi)(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} + i \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}) = \underbrace{(a \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} + b \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v})}_{\operatorname{Re} A\mathbf{v}} + i \underbrace{(a \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v} - b \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v})}_{\operatorname{Im} A\mathbf{v}}$. By

Exercise 25,

$$A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}) = \operatorname{Re} A\mathbf{v} = a \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} + b \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}$$

$$A(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}) = \operatorname{Im} A\mathbf{v} = -b \operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} + a \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}$$

b. Let $P = [\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v} \quad \operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}]$. By (a), $A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}) = P \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$, $A(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v}) = P \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$. So

$$AP = [A(\operatorname{Re} \mathbf{v}) \quad A(\operatorname{Im} \mathbf{v})] = \left[P \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \quad P \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix} \right] = P \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} = PC.$$

Chapter 5.7

1. From the “eigendata” (eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors) given, the eigenfunctions for the differential equation $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$ are $\mathbf{v}_1 e^{4t}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 e^{2t}$. The general solution of $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$ has the form

$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{4t} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{2t}$. The initial condition $\mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ determines c_1 and c_2 :

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{4(0)} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{2(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Solving the system: } \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 & -6 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5/2 \\ 0 & 1 & -3/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus $c_1 = 5/2$, $c_2 = -3/2$, and $\mathbf{x}(t) = \frac{5}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{4t} - \frac{3}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{2t}$.

5. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 24 = (\lambda - 4)(\lambda - 6) = 0$. Eigenvalues: 4 and 6.

For $\lambda = 4$: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, so $x_1 = (1/3)x_2$ with x_2 free. Take $x_2 = 3$ and $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

For $\lambda = 6$: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, so $x_1 = x_2$ with x_2 free. Take $x_2 = 1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

For the initial condition $\mathbf{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, find c_1 and c_2 such that $c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}(0)$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \mathbf{x}(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 7/2 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Thus } c_1 = -1/2, c_2 = 7/2, \text{ and}$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = -\frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} e^{4t} + \frac{7}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{6t}.$$

Since both eigenvalues are positive, the origin is a repeller of the dynamical system described by $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$. The direction of greatest repulsion is the line through \mathbf{v}_2 and the origin.

7. From Exercise 5, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, with eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ corresponding to eigenvalues 4 and 6 respectively. To decouple the equation $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$, set $P = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and let

$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$, so that $A = PDP^{-1}$ and $D = P^{-1}AP$. Substituting $\mathbf{x}(t) = P\mathbf{y}(t)$ into $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$ we have

$\frac{d}{dt}(P\mathbf{y}) = A(P\mathbf{y}) = PDP^{-1}(P\mathbf{y}) = PD\mathbf{y}$. Since P has constant entries, $\frac{d}{dt}(P\mathbf{y}) = P(\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{y}))$, so that

left-multiplying the equality $P(\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{y})) = PD\mathbf{y}$ by P^{-1} yields $\mathbf{y}' = D\mathbf{y}$, or $\begin{bmatrix} y_1'(t) \\ y_2'(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$.

9. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. An eigenvalue of A is $-2+i$ with corresponding eigenvector $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The

complex eigenfunctions $\mathbf{v}e^{\lambda t}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{v}}e^{\overline{\lambda}t}$ form a basis for the set of all complex solutions to $\mathbf{x}' = A\mathbf{x}$.

The general complex solution is $c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{(-2+i)t} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1+i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{(-2-i)t}$, where c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary

complex numbers. To build the general real solution, rewrite $\mathbf{v}e^{(-2+i)t}$ as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}e^{(-2+i)t} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} e^{it} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} (\cos t + i \sin t) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos t - i \cos t + i \sin t - i^2 \sin t \\ \cos t + i \sin t \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos t + \sin t \\ \cos t \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} + i \begin{bmatrix} \sin t - \cos t \\ \sin t \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} \end{aligned}$$

The general real solution has the form $c_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos t + \sin t \\ \cos t \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} \sin t - \cos t \\ \sin t \end{bmatrix} e^{-2t}$, where c_1 and c_2

now are real numbers. The trajectories are spirals because the eigenvalues are complex. The spirals tend toward the origin because the real parts of the eigenvalues are negative.