

So $A = X \Delta X^{-1}$:

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

Δ is a projection matrix, so $\Delta^2 = \Delta$ (also $\Delta^n = \Delta$). This means $\Delta^n = \Delta$ for any n as well. But A is not an orthogonal projection matrix because A isn't symmetric.

Fun application of diagonalizing to Fibonacci numbers

$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_2 = 1, F_3 = 2, F_4 = 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \dots$

In general, $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2}$ (recursion formula)

Use eigenvalues to find a "closed-form" formula for F_k :

Idea: $\begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} F_2 \\ F_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_1 + F_0 \\ F_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix}$

In general: $\begin{bmatrix} F_{k+1} \\ F_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_k + F_{k-1} \\ F_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_k \\ F_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} \\ F_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2 \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-1} \\ F_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^3 \begin{bmatrix} F_{k-2} \\ F_{k-3} \end{bmatrix} = \dots = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix}$

$F_{k-2} + F_{k-3}$ same $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

We can use eigenvalues to compute matrix powers: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

F_k is the second component of this vector.

Eigenvalues: $\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \lambda^2 - \lambda - 1 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 4(1)(-1)}}{2(1)}$
 $= \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$

"+" eigenvalue is called the "Golden Ratio". Typical notation

$$\text{is } \phi: \phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

"-" eigenvalue is $1 - \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 1 - \phi$

Eigenvectors: $\lambda = \phi$, Solve $\begin{bmatrix} 1-\phi & 1 \\ 1 & -\phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

2nd equation tells us that $x_1 - \phi x_2 = 0$, so $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector.

For $\lambda = 1 - \phi$, Solve $\begin{bmatrix} 1-(1-\phi) & 1 \\ 1 & -(1-\phi) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

~~1st equation tells us that $\phi x_1 + x_2 = 0$, so $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ \phi \end{bmatrix}$~~

2nd equation says $x_1 - (1-\phi)x_2 = 0$, so $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\phi \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector.

$$\text{So } \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \phi & 1-\phi \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\wedge} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 1-\phi \end{bmatrix}}_{X^{-1}} \frac{1}{\phi - (1-\phi)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -(1-\phi) \\ -1 & \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Finally: } \begin{bmatrix} F_{k+1} \\ F_k \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^k \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi & 1-\phi \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi^k & 0 \\ 0 & (1-\phi)^k \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2\phi-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1-(1-\phi) \\ -1 & \phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \phi^{k+1} & (1-\phi)^{k+1} \\ \phi^k & (1-\phi)^k \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2\phi-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2\phi-1} \begin{bmatrix} \phi^{k+1} - (1-\phi)^{k+1} \\ \phi^k - (1-\phi)^k \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Closed-form formula: $F_k = 2\text{nd component} =$

$$\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) - 1} \left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^k - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^k \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^k - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^k \right]$$

It's a little remarkable that this expression is a positive integer, since there are so many $\sqrt{5}$'s in here. (But note: formula stays same when you change $\sqrt{5} \rightarrow -\sqrt{5}$, means $\sqrt{5}$'s have to cancel out.)

What does this formula tell us about F_k ?

When k gets large: $\phi > 1 \rightsquigarrow \phi^k$ grows exponentially

$-1 + \phi < 1 \rightsquigarrow (\phi - 1)^k$ decays exponentially

So if k is large, $F_k \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^k$

← Shows F_k grows approximately exponentially, with base $\phi \approx 1.61803398\dots$

Ratio of consecutive Fibonacci numbers:

$$\frac{F_{k+1}}{F_k} \approx \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^{k+1}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^k} = \phi \quad (\text{if } k \text{ is large})$$

Examples: $\phi = 1.61803398\dots$

$$F_6/F_5 = 8/5 = 1.60000000$$

$$F_7/F_6 = 13/8 = 1.62500000$$

$$F_8/F_7 = 21/13 = 1.61538462\dots$$

$$F_9/F_8 = 34/21 = 1.61904762\dots$$

$$F_{10}/F_9 = 55/34 = 1.61764706\dots$$

$$F_{11}/F_{10} = 89/55 = 1.61818182\dots$$

$$F_{12}/F_{11} = 144/89 = 1.61797753\dots$$

Since also $u(0) = u_0$:

$$u_0 = C e^{\lambda(0)} = C \longrightarrow u(t) = e^{\lambda t} u_0$$

(17)

Change to $n \times n$ system: $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ u_n(t) \end{bmatrix}$

$u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$
are "coupled"

$$\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = A \vec{u}(t)$$

\uparrow
 $n \times n$ matrix

Example: $\begin{cases} u_1'(t) = 2u_1(t) + u_2(t) \\ u_2'(t) = u_1(t) + 2u_2(t) \end{cases}$

$$\text{Or, } \begin{bmatrix} u_1' \\ u_2' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Guess an exponential solution: $\vec{u}(t) = e^{\lambda t} \vec{x}$
 \uparrow
constant vector

Then we need: $\vec{u}'(t) = \lambda e^{\lambda t} \vec{x}$
 $\parallel \qquad \parallel \qquad \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} e^{\lambda t} \vec{x}$

That is: We need λ to be an eigenvalue and \vec{x} to be a corresponding eigenvector (to get a non-zero solution)

Eigenvalues in this example: $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\parallel \qquad \parallel \qquad \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2-\lambda)(2-\lambda) - 1 = \lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3$$

$$\longrightarrow (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 3) = 0 \longrightarrow \lambda = 1, 3$$

Eigenvectors for $\lambda = 1$: Solve $(A - I)\vec{x} = \vec{0} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

So we need $x_1 = -x_2 \rightarrow \vec{x} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(18)

Eigenvectors for $\lambda=3$: Solve $(A-3I)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$, or

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ So } x_1 = x_2 \rightarrow \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} x_2$$

Two eigenvalue/eigenvector pairs \rightarrow two different non-zero solutions of the differential equations:

$$\vec{u}(t) = e^t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -e^t \\ e^t \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{u}(t) = e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{3t} \\ e^{3t} \end{bmatrix}$$

General solution of the system of differential equations:

All linear combinations of the two basic solutions

\hookrightarrow because it's a 2×2 system

$$\vec{u}(t) = C e^t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + D e^{3t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -C e^t + D e^{3t} \\ C e^t + D e^{3t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \leftarrow u_1(t) \\ \leftarrow u_2(t) \end{matrix}$$

We can pick out one particular solution by choosing initial values for $u_1(t)$ and $u_2(t)$.

Example (of an initial value problem): Suppose $u_1(0)=2$, $u_2(0)=3$, or $\vec{u}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\text{Then } \begin{cases} -C e^0 + D e^{3(0)} = 2 \\ C e^0 + D e^{3(0)} = 3 \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{cases} -C + D = 2 \\ C + D = 3 \end{cases} \begin{matrix} \nearrow 2C = 1 \rightarrow C = \frac{1}{2} \\ \searrow 2D = 5 \rightarrow D = \frac{5}{2} \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{Get } \vec{u}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2}e^t + \frac{5}{2}e^{3t} \\ \frac{1}{2}e^t + \frac{5}{2}e^{3t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Another perspective for solving differential equations:

"Matrix exponential" of an $n \times n$ matrix A .

$$e^A = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2} + \frac{A^3}{6} + \frac{A^4}{4!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!}$$

Technically, this is $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^N \frac{A^n}{n!}}_{\text{"partial sum" } n \times n \text{ matrix, } S_N}$, means every entry of S_N approaches

the corresponding entry of e^A as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Derivatives: } \frac{d}{dt} e^{tA} &= \frac{d}{dt} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} A^n \stackrel{(?)}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dt} \frac{t^n}{n!} A^n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} A^n = A \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} A^n = A e^{tA}. \end{aligned}$$

Shows that solutions to $\vec{u}'(t) = A \vec{u}(t)$ should be

$$\vec{u}(t) = e^{tA} \vec{u}(0)$$

the initial value, can be any constant vector

But can we actually calculate this matrix exponential?

Yes if A is diagonalized! $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$

eigenvalue matrix:

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Because then $e^{tA} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} A^n$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!} (X \Lambda X^{-1})^n = X \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^m}{m!} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^m & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2^m & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n^m \end{bmatrix} \right) X^{-1}$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{X \Lambda^n X^{-1}}$

Diagonal matrix with entries

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^m \lambda_1^m}{m!}, \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^m \lambda_2^m}{m!}, \dots, \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^m \lambda_n^m}{m!}$$

$$\text{So } e^{tA} = X \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & 0 \\ & e^{\lambda_2 t} & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix} X^{-1}$$

So here are the solutions to $\vec{u}'(t) = A\vec{u}(t)$ when $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$:

$$\vec{u}(t) = X \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & 0 \\ & e^{\lambda_2 t} & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix} X^{-1} \vec{u}(0)$$

Let's check this with our previous example, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} =$

$$\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 3, \quad \vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } A = X\Lambda X^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solutions to $\vec{u}'(t) = A\vec{u}(t)$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 0 \\ 0 & e^{3t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1(0) \\ u_2(0) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -e^t & e^{3t} \\ e^t & e^{3t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2}u_1(0) + \frac{1}{2}u_2(0) \\ \frac{1}{2}u_1(0) + \frac{1}{2}u_2(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(u_1(0) - u_2(0))e^t + \frac{1}{2}(u_1(0) + u_2(0))e^{3t} \\ -\frac{1}{2}(u_1(0) - u_2(0))e^t + \frac{1}{2}(u_1(0) + u_2(0))e^{3t} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Solve when } \vec{u}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}:$$

These are the C and D from before.

$$u_1(t) = -\frac{1}{2}e^t + \frac{5}{2}e^{3t}, \quad u_2(t) = \frac{1}{2}e^t + \frac{5}{2}e^{3t}, \quad \text{like before.}$$

Matrix exponential is still useful when eigenvalues don't behave well (repeated roots)

Example $y'' - 2y' + y = 0$
 \uparrow
 2nd-order equation for $y(t)$

Trick to turn into a 1st-order system: write $u_1(t) = y(t)$,
 $u_2(t) = y'(t)$.