

Week 6 summary:

- Harmonic motion: $x'' + 2cx' + \omega_0^2 x = f(t)$

* Simple harmonic motion: ($c = 0, f(t) = 0$)

$$x(t) = a \cos \omega_0 t + b \sin \omega_0 t \quad \text{or} \quad A \cos(\omega_0 t - \phi)$$

* With damping ($c \neq 0$). Roots $r_{1,2} = -c \pm \sqrt{c^2 - \omega_0^2}$

Case 1: $c > \omega_0$ overdamped $x(t) = C_1 e^{r_1 t} + C_2 e^{r_2 t}$

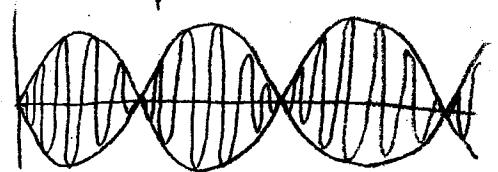
Case 2: $c = \omega_0$ critically damped $x(t) = C_1 e^{rt} + C_2 t e^{rt}$

Case 3: $c < \omega_0$ underdamped $x(t) = e^{-ct} (a \cos \omega_0 t + b \sin \omega_0 t)$

- * Forced harmonic motion ($f(t) \neq 0$).

e.g., $x'' + \omega_0^2 x = A \cos \omega t$

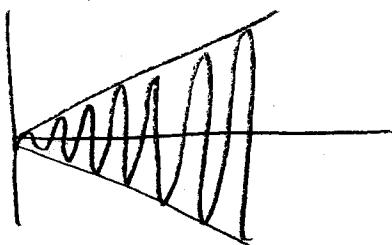
example IVP soln



Case 1: $\omega \neq \omega_0$ $x(t) = \frac{A}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2} (\cos \omega t - \cos \omega_0 t) = \frac{A}{2\delta\bar{\omega}} \sin \delta t \sin \bar{\omega} t$

Case 2: $\omega = \omega_0$ $x(t) = C_1 \cos \omega_0 t + C_2 \sin \omega_0 t + \frac{A}{2\omega_0} t \sin \omega_0 t$

example IVP soln:



- We can write a 2nd order ODE into a system of two 1st order ODEs.

This week: Basic linear algebra ("matrix algebra").

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Basic Matrix algebra

Matrices add in the "obvious way": $\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$

Multiplication is slightly more complicated:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

We can only multiply an $n \times m$ matrix ("n rows, m columns") by an $m \times r$ matrix. The result is an $n \times r$ matrix.

Examples: $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by + cz \\ dx + ey + fz \end{pmatrix}$

$2 \times 2 \quad 2 \times 1 \quad 2 \times 2 \quad 2 \times 3 \quad 3 \times 1 \quad = \quad 2 \times 1$

What doesn't work: $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d & e \\ f & g \end{pmatrix}$

$2 \times 2 \quad 3 \times 2 \quad 3 \times 1 \quad 2 \times 2$

Def: An $n \times 1$ matrix is called a vector.

Application of matrices: Systems of linear algebraic equations.

Consider the system $\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2 \end{cases}$ (x_1 & x_2 are the "unknowns")

We can write this as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{or} \quad A \vec{x} + \vec{b}$$

Goal: Solve for \vec{x} .

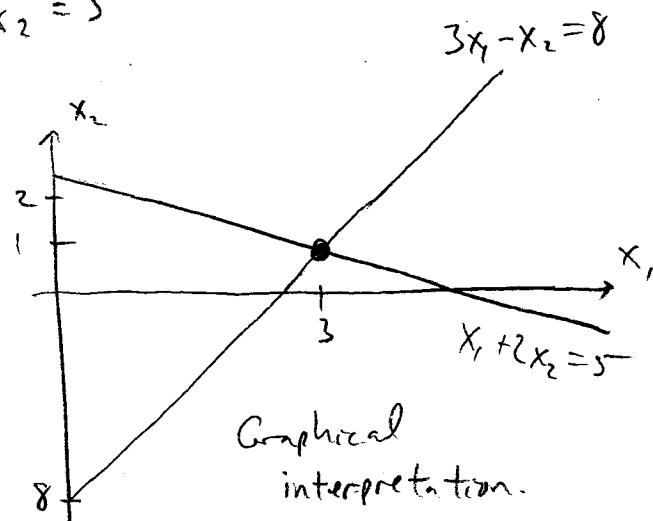
Example 1: Solve the system

$$\begin{cases} 3x_1 - x_2 = 8 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 = 5 \end{cases}$$

This is easy: $x_2 = 3x_1 - 8$

Sub. back in, get $x_1 + 2(3x_1 - 8) = 5$

$x_1 = 3, x_2 = 1.$



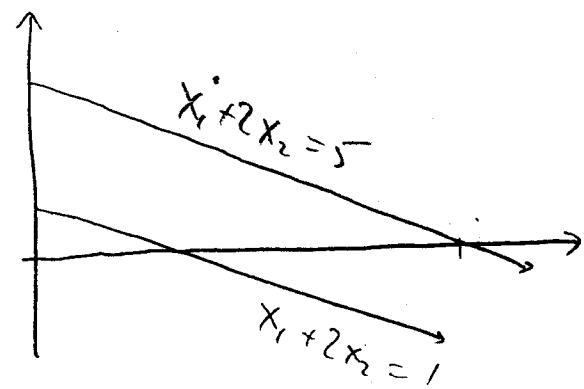
Example 2: Solve the system

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 = 1 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 = 5 \end{cases}$$

$x_1 = 1 - 2x_2$

Sub. back in, get $1 = 5$, which is false,
thus there is no solution.

(i.e., no values of x_1 & x_2 satisfy
these equations.)



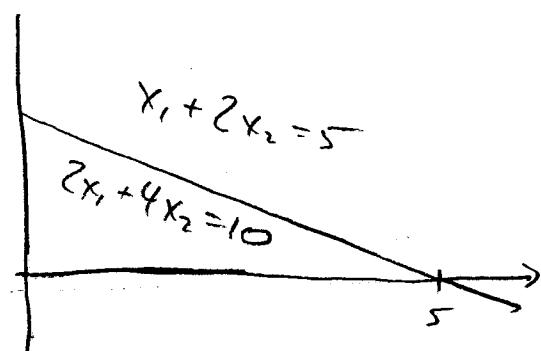
Example 3: Solve the system

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 + 4x_2 = 10 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 = 5 \end{cases}$$

$x_1 = 5 - 2x_2$

Sub. back in, get $2(5 - 2x_2) + 4x_2 = 10$,
or $10 = 10$.

(i.e., any values of x_1 & x_2 satisfy
these equations).



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Consider the general case: $\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2 \end{cases}$

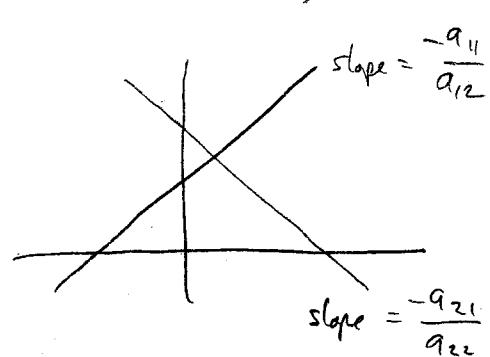
Solving for x_1 , we get $x_1 = \frac{a_{22}b_1 - a_{12}b_2}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}}$, $x_2 = \frac{a_{11}b_2 - a_{21}b_1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}}$

Note: There will be a unique solution for x_1 & x_2 if and only if $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} \neq 0$.

This quantity is called the determinant of $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$, and is denoted $\det A$, or $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}$.

Geometric interpretation:

If the slopes are different, then there will be a unique solution, and $-\frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}} \neq -\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}$, i.e., $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} = \det A \neq 0$.



Def: The (2×2) identity matrix is $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Note: $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$.

and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

This is the "matrix analog" of the multiplicative identity, 1.

Next, we'll look for a matrix analog of "inverses", i.e., the fact that for any fraction $\frac{a}{b}$: $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{b}{a} = 1$, (the multiplicative identity).

* Given A , we want to find a matrix B such that $AB = BA = I$. Such a matrix is called the inverse of A , and denoted A^{-1} .

Note that $\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} \end{pmatrix}$
 $= (\det A) \cdot I.$

Thus, $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$.

When A^{-1} exists, we say that A is invertible, or nonsingular.
Otherwise, A is noninvertible, or singular.

* Thus, A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

Back to systems: We want to solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ for \vec{x} .

If A is invertible, then write $A^{-1}A\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$
 $\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}}$

Recall example 1: $\begin{cases} 3x_1 - x_2 = 8 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 = 5 \end{cases}$

Write as $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$.

$A \quad \vec{x} = \vec{b}$

$\det A = 3 \cdot 2 - (-1) \cdot 1 = 7$, so $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

The solution is thus $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{pmatrix} 21 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$\vec{x} = A^{-1} \cdot \vec{b}$

i.e., $x_1 = 3, x_2 = 1$ ✓

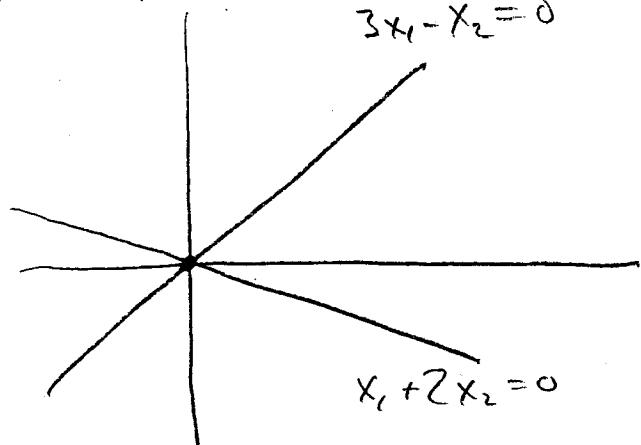
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Def: If $b_1 = b_2 = 0$ in a system, then the system is homogeneous.

In matrix notation, this is $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

Graphical interpretation: 2 lines through the origin, $\vec{0}$.

Note: If $\det A \neq 0$, then the only solution is $x_1 = x_2 = 0$,
i.e., $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.



Geometrically, this is clear.

Algebraically, $A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow A^{-1}A\vec{x} = A\vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

A geometric way to view matrices:

A 2×2 matrix is a linear map from $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

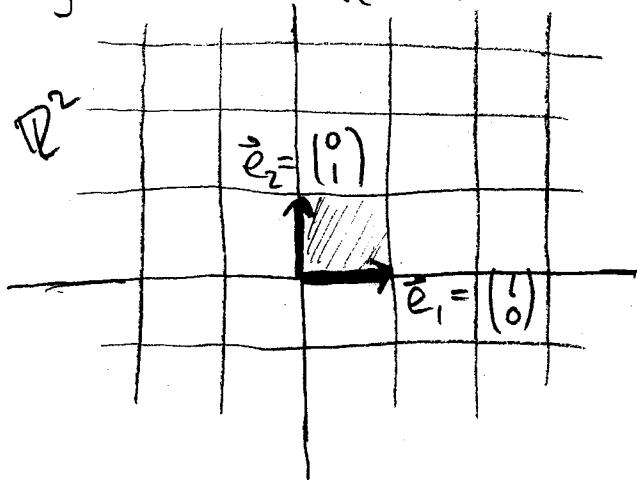
$$A : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{i.e., } A\vec{x} = \vec{y}$$

$$\text{explicitly, } \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

input vector in \mathbb{R}^2

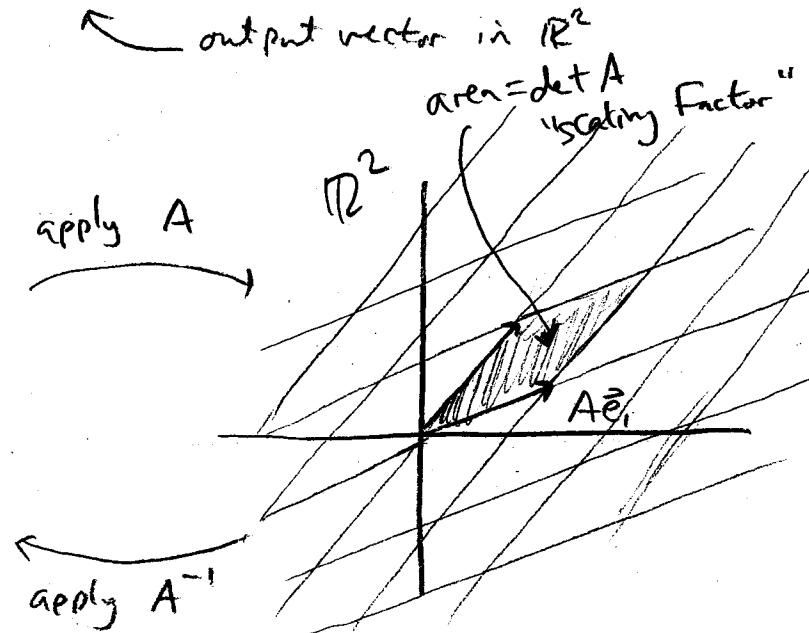
output vector in \mathbb{R}^2

way to visualize this.



apply A

apply A^{-1}



Imagine "picking up" \hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2 and moving them to $A\hat{e}_1, A\hat{e}_2$,
and the grid "comes along with them".

Note: $A\hat{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \end{pmatrix}$, $A\hat{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$.

Visually, A^{-1} is the map $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ that "undoes" A .

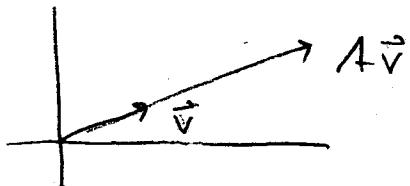
Fact: $\det A = \text{area of the image of the unit square under } A$.

Note: If this area = 0, then the grid has "collapsed" to 1-D,
and we can't "undo" (or "pull apart") this. (This is a
geometric interpretation of why if $\det A=0$, then
 A^{-1} doesn't exist).

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

Def: let A be a matrix. A vector \vec{v} is an eigenvector of A
if $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ for some constant λ , which is called an
eigenvalue.

Geometrically:



How to find them:

We want to solve $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \Rightarrow A\vec{v} - \lambda\vec{v} = 0$
 $\Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = 0$

This equation is homogeneous, so the only solution is $\vec{v} = 0$,
unless $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

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So we must solve $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ for λ .

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \underbrace{(a_{11} - \lambda)(a_{22} - \lambda)}_{\text{polynomial in } \lambda} - a_{12}a_{21} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - (a_{11} + a_{22})\lambda + (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}) = 0 \quad \text{"characteristic polynomial"}$$

Def: The trace of A is the sum of the diagonal entries, and denoted $\text{tr } A$.

If A is 2×2 , then $\text{tr } A = a_{11} + a_{22}$.

Remark: The characteristic polynomial is $\boxed{\lambda^2 - (\text{tr } A)\lambda + (\det A) = 0}$

The roots of the char. poly. are the eigenvalues of A .

Revisit example 1: (Real, distinct eigenvalues)

Find the eigenvalues of $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 4 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1-\lambda)^2 - 4 = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3 = (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 1) = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda_1 = 3 \text{ and } \lambda_2 = -1}$$

Now, let's find the associated eigenvectors, \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 .

$\boxed{\lambda_1 = 3}$: The eigenvector \vec{v}_1 solves $(A - 3I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$.

$$(A - 3I)\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-3 & 1 \\ 4 & 1-3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e., $\begin{cases} -2x_1 + x_2 = 0 \\ 4x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$. This system is redundant (because $\det(A - 3I) = 0$)

Thus, $-2x_1 + x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 2x_1$

" x_2 is twice as big as x_1 "

so, $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ 2c \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

* Any of these is an eigenvector, so let's just pick one: $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Thus, $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A , with eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 3$.

i.e., $A\vec{v}_1 = 3\vec{v}_1$.

Check: $A\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 3\vec{v}_1 \quad \checkmark$

Let's find the other eigenvector

$\lambda_2 = -1$: The eigenvector \vec{v}_2 solves $(A + I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$.

$$(A + I)\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1+1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 + x_2 \\ 4x_1 + 2x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e., $\begin{cases} 2x_1 + x_2 = 0 \\ 4x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$

Again, the equations are redundant, so we just need to consider one of them.

$2x_1 + x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = -2x_1$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ -2c \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is an eigenvector for any } c.$$

Let's just pick one, say $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Check: $A\vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = -\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = -\vec{v}_2 \quad \checkmark$

* In summary, the matrix A has eigenvectors $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ & $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and associated eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 3$, $\lambda_2 = -1$.

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Example 2: (Complex eigenvalues)

Find the eigenvalues of $A = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (-\frac{1}{2} - \lambda)^2 + 1 = \lambda^2 + \lambda + \frac{5}{4} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{2} \pm i$$

Find the eigenvectors:

$\boxed{\lambda_1 = -\frac{1}{2} + i}$: The eigenvector solves $(A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$

$$(A - (-\frac{1}{2} + i)I)\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} -i & 1 \\ -1 & -i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} -ix_1 + x_2 = 0 \\ -x_1 - ix_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Again, the eqns are redundant, and so $-ix_1 + x_2 = 0$.

$\Rightarrow x_2 = ix_1 \Rightarrow \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ ic \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector.

$\boxed{\lambda_2 = -\frac{1}{2} - i}$:

$$(A - (-\frac{1}{2} - i)I)\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} i & 1 \\ -1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} ix_1 + x_2 = 0 \\ -x_1 + ix_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Redundant eqns $\Rightarrow ix_1 + x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = -ix_1$

$\Rightarrow \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ -ic \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector.

* In summary, the matrix A has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = -\frac{1}{2} + i$, $\lambda_2 = -\frac{1}{2} - i$, and associated eigenvectors $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$, $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$.