## Math 21b, March 28: Complex Eigenvalues and Stability

1. Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Solution:** One can easily compute that the characteristic polynomial is  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 1 - \lambda^3 = (1 - \lambda)(1 + \lambda + \lambda^2)$ . The zeroes of this polynomial are the *cube roots of unity*, i.e. the numbers 1,  $e^{2\pi i/3} = -\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ , and  $e^{4\pi i/3} = -\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . To reduce clutter, let us write  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$ . Then this means the three eigenvalues are  $1, \omega, \omega^2$ .

The eigenvectors can be directly computed

$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1\\ 1 & -1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} -\omega & 0 & 1\\ 1 & -\omega & 0\\ 0 & 1 & -\omega \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ \omega^2\\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} -\omega^2 & 0 & 1\\ 1 & -\omega^2 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & -\omega^2 \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ \omega\\ \omega^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Note:* Here's an interpretation of why these are the eigenvectors. The matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  takes a vector

 $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$  and outputs the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} z \\ x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ , i.e. it just shifts the entries down by one (and knocks the last entry

up to the top). Now check what this operation does to the three vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\\omega^2\\\omega \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\\omega\\\omega^2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Complex numbers:** A complex number is a number of the form a + bi, where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . *a* is the *real part* and *bi* is the *imaginary part*. Addition of complex numbers is done componentwise, and multiplication is done using the fact that  $i^2 = -1$ .

$$(a+bi) + (c+di) = (a+c) + (b+d)i \qquad (a+bi)(c+di) = (ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i$$

**Euler's formula:** Using Taylor series, one can show that  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ . This provides us a great tool to multiply complex numbers by using *polar coordinates*, i.e. expressing a complex number as  $re^{i\theta} = r \cos \theta + ir \sin \theta$ , where r is the *length* of the complex number. I.e., we use the formula

$$(r_1e^{i\theta_1})(r_2e^{i\theta_2}) = r_1r_2e^{i(\theta_1+\theta_2)}$$

Length of a complex number: The *length* of a complex number a + bi is found by multiplying it by its *conjugate* and taking the square root.

$$\sqrt{(a+bi)(a-bi)} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

- 2. In this question, we'll use polar coordinates to calculate  $(1+i)^{10}$ .
  - (a) Write the complex number 1 + i in polar coordinates  $r^{i\theta}$  by finding its length r and its angle  $\theta$ .

**Solution:** 1 + i has length  $\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$ , and angle  $\pi/4$ . Thus,  $1 + i = \sqrt{2}e^{\pi i/4}$ 

(b) Use this form to calculate  $(1 + i)^{10}$ . Can you find a geometric description of what multiplication by 1 + i does in the complex plane?

$$(1+i)^{10} = (\sqrt{2})^{10} e^{10\pi i/4} = 32e^{5\pi i/2} = 32i$$

because if we rotate counterclockwise by an angle of  $5\pi/2$  from the positive real (x) axis (which is the same as rotating by just  $\pi/2$ ), we will be pointing vertically along the positive imaginary (y) axis in the complex plane.

In general, for any complex number  $re^{i\theta}$ ,  $(1+i)re^{i\theta} = (r\sqrt{2})e^{i(\theta+\pi/4)}$ , i.e. multiplication by 1+i will lengthen the complex number by a factor of  $\sqrt{2}$  and rotate it by  $\pi/4$ .

**Complex conjugates:** For any complex number a + bi, its *conjugate* is the complex number a - bi. In polar coordinates, the conjugate of  $re^{i\theta}$  is  $re^{-i\theta}$ . Complex eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrices come in *conjugate pairs*.

**Dot product of complex vectors:** If we have two vectors  $\vec{v}, \vec{w}$  with complex entries, then to take their *dot product*  $v \cdot w$ , we have to perform the multiplication  $\vec{v}^T w$ . I.e., we have to transpose v AND conjugate all of the entries, then multiply the resulting row vector by the column vector w. This is so that the dot product of a vector with itself equals the sequence length. For example, if  $v = \begin{bmatrix} 3+i \end{bmatrix}$ 

so that the dot product of a vector with itself equals the squared length. For example, if  $v = \begin{bmatrix} 3+i\\2 \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$v \cdot v = \overline{v}^T v = \begin{bmatrix} 3-i & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3+i \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = (3-i)(3+i) + (2)(2) = 10 + 4 = 14$$

Matrix multiplication with complex numbers: Multiplying matrices with complex numbers works just the same as multiplying matrices with real numbers. Row reduction to compute matrix inverses, kernel, etc also works the same.

- 3. Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -9 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ . In this problem, we will solve the discrete dynamical system  $\vec{x}(t+1) = A\vec{x}(t)$  with initial condition  $\vec{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Remember that we can derive  $\vec{x}(t) = A^t \vec{x}(0)$ , so we are essentially trying to calculate  $A^t$ .
  - (a) Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A. Use this to diagonalize A. (Your eigenvectors should have complex entries!)

Solution: First, the eigenvalues. We compute the characteristic polynomial and then find the

roots using the quadratic formula.

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 + 6\lambda + 18 \implies \lambda = -3 \pm 3i$$

Let  $\lambda_1 = -3 + 3i$  and  $\lambda_2 = -3 - 3i$ . Eigenvectors are just computed in the same way.

$$\ker(A - \lambda_1 I) = \ker \begin{bmatrix} -3i & -9\\ 1 & -3i \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} 3i\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\ker(A - \lambda_2 I) = \ker \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -9\\ 1 & 3i \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} -3i\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Note that the eigenvector for  $\lambda_2$  is just the conjugate of the eigenvector for  $\lambda_1$ .)

(b) Write down an expression for the matrix  $A^t$  in the form  $SDS^{-1}$  with D diagonal, and multiply this by  $\vec{x}(0)$  to get  $\vec{x}(t)$ . (Note, the multiplication is quicker if you first multiply  $S^{-1}$  by  $\vec{x}(0)$ , instead of multiplying matrices.)

**Solution:** We can express  $A = SDS^{-1}$  with  $D = \begin{bmatrix} -3+3i & 0\\ 0 & -3-3i \end{bmatrix}$  and  $S = \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -3i\\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . We need to calculate  $(-3+3i)^t$  and  $(-3-3i)^t$ . -3+3i has length  $3\sqrt{2}$  and angle  $3\pi/4$ , while -3-3i has length  $3\sqrt{2}$  and angle  $5\pi/4 = -3\pi/4$ . Thus,

$$(-3+3i)^{t} = (3\sqrt{2})^{t} e^{3\pi i t/4} = (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \left(\cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} + i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4}\right)$$
$$(-3-3i)^{t} = (3\sqrt{2})^{t} e^{-3\pi i t/4} = (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \left(\cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} - i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4}\right)$$

One can compute via row reduction that  $S^{-1} = \frac{1}{6i} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3i \\ -1 & 3i \end{bmatrix}$ . Thus,

$$\vec{x}(t) = SD^{t}S^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -3i\\1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (-3+3i)^{t} & 0\\0 & (-3-3i)^{t} \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{6i} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3i\\-1 & 3i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -3i\\1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} + i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4} & 0\\0 & \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} - i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4} \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{6i} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3i\\-1 & 3i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0\\2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now proceed to multiply this out.

$$= (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -3i\\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} + i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4} & 0\\ 0 & \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} - i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \begin{bmatrix} 3i & -3i\\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} + i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4}\\ \cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} - i\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} (3\sqrt{2})^{t} \begin{bmatrix} -6\sin\frac{3\pi t}{4}\\ 2\cos\frac{3\pi t}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$

(c) In words, how does  $\vec{x}(t)$  behave as t increases? (Does it grow or shrink? Which quadrant will it be in?)

**Solution:** As t increases, we can see that the quadrant will vary, because sin and cos oscillate: in fact, it will be a *counterclockwise spiral* because the x-coordinate is  $-\sin$  and the y-coordinate is cos. As  $t \to \infty$ , the factor at the front grows without bound, and so  $\vec{x}(t)$  spirals *outwards*.

**Stability:** The matrix A associated to the discrete dynamical system  $\vec{x}(t+1) = A\vec{x}(t)$  is called

- asymptotically stable (or just *stable*) if  $\vec{x}(t) \to 0$  as  $t \to \infty$ , for *every* initial condition  $\vec{x}(0)$ . Equivalently, if  $A^t$  converges to the zero matrix as  $t \to \infty$ .
- **unstable** if  $\vec{x}(t) \to \infty$  as  $t \to \infty$  for some initial condition  $\vec{x}(0)$ . Equivalently, if some entry of  $A^t$  diverges as  $t \to \infty$ .
- nonasymptotically stable (we will not call these systems stable) if  $\vec{x}(t)$  stays bounded (but does not necessarily go to 0) as  $t \to \infty$ , for every  $\vec{x}(0)$ .

We will not distinguish between unstable and nonasymptotically stable. Both of these situations will be called 'not stable'.

4. In each of the following situations, we have a discrete dynamical system whose matrix A is diagonalizable with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  and associated nonzero eigenvectors  $\vec{v}_1, \ldots, \vec{v}_n$ . Write down a formula for  $\vec{x}(t)$  in terms of the given initial condition  $\vec{x}(0)$ , and then explain what happens to  $\vec{x}(t)$  as  $t \to \infty$ .

(a) 
$$\lambda_1 = 0.7, \lambda_2 = -0.3, \vec{x}(0) = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2.$$

Solution:  $\vec{x}(t) = (0.7)^t \vec{v}_1 + (-0.3)^t \vec{v}_2$ . As  $t \to \infty$ ,  $\vec{x}(t) \to 0$ . So this system is stable.

(b)  $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 1, \vec{x}(0) = v_1 - v_2.$ 

**Solution:**  $\vec{x}(t) = 2^t \vec{v}_1 + 1^t \vec{v}_2$ . As  $t \to \infty$ ,  $\vec{x}(t)$  grows without bound in magnitude. So this system is *unstable*.

(c)  $\lambda_1 = 1 + i, \lambda_2 = 1 - i, \lambda_3 = 1, \vec{x}(0) = v_1 + v_2 + v_3.$ 

Solution:  $\vec{x}(t) = (1+i)^t \vec{v}_1 + (1-i)^t \vec{v}_2 + 1^t \vec{v}_2 = (\sqrt{2})^t e^{\pi i t/4} \vec{v}_1 + (\sqrt{2})^t e^{-\pi i t/4} \vec{v}_2 + \vec{v}_3$ . As  $t \to \infty$ , this grows without bound in magnitude. Therefore, this system is unstable.

(d)  $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_3 = -1, \vec{x}(0) = 2v_1 + v_2.$ 

**Solution:**  $\vec{x}(t) = 2(1)^t \vec{v}_1 + (-1)^t \vec{v}_2$ . As t increases, this flips back and forth between  $2\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$  and  $2\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2$ . So this system is nonasymptotically stable - in particular, it is not stable.

5. Can you give a simple criterion to determine whether a matrix A is asymptotically stable?

**Solution:** We have seen above that if A is diagonalizable, then A is asymptotically stable if and only if all of its eigenvalues  $\lambda$  satisfy  $|\lambda| < 1$ . We will see in the next class that this holds for nondiagonalizable matrices too. That is, A is asymptotically stable iff every eigenvalue  $\lambda$  satisfies  $|\lambda| < 1$ .

6. A mouse is in a maze with three rooms, with all three connected to each other. At time t = 0, the mouse is in room 1, and at each step, the mouse walks to one of the two adjacent rooms, chosen randomly. If  $\vec{x}(t)$  is a vector containing the probabilities that the mouse is in each of the three rooms

at time *t*, then this defines the dynamical system  $\vec{x}(t+1) = A\vec{x}(t)$  with  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and

$$\vec{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (why?). Solve for  $\vec{x}(t)$ , and determine what happens as  $t \to \infty$ .<sup>1</sup>

Solution: Calculate the characteristic polynomial:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -\lambda & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix} = -\lambda^3 + \frac{3}{4}\lambda + 1/4 = -(\lambda - 1)\left(\lambda^2 + \lambda + \frac{1}{4}\right) = -(\lambda - 1)(\lambda + 1/2)^2$$

so we have eigenvalues 1, -1/2, -1/2. Calculating the eigenvectors,

$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \operatorname{span} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
Now to calculate  $\vec{x}(t)$ , we can write  $A = SDS^{-1}$  with  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and exponentiate in the usual way, i.e. calculate

and exponentiate in the usual way, i.e. calculate

$$\vec{x}(t) = A^t \vec{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (1/2)^t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (1/2)^t \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Instead, I'm going to describe a second (equivalent) way of doing it. Write  $\vec{x}(0)$  as a linear combination of the eigenvectors of A that we found.

$$\vec{x}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1\\0 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is an example of a *random walk*, which is a special case of a *Markov process*, from probability. These discrete dynamical systems have applications all over the place. The Perron-Frobenius theorem gives conditions for such a system to be stable.

Now apply  $A^t$ : we know how  $A^t$  acts on each of these eigenvectors.

$$A^{t}\vec{x}(0) = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} + (-1/2)^{t} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1\\0 \end{bmatrix} + (-1/2)^{t} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1+2(-1/2)^{t}\\1-(-1/2)^{t}\\1-(-1/2)^{t} \end{bmatrix}$$

As  $t \to \infty$ , this converges to  $\begin{bmatrix} 1/3\\ 1/3\\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$ . In other words, after the mouse has been wandering around in this maze for a long time, we should expect the mouse to be in each room with probability 1/3. This

this maze for a long time, we should expect the mouse to be in each room with probability 1/3. This makes sense!

**Note:** We did this analysis with the example of a simple maze of three rooms with any two connected, and all transition probabilities equal to 1/2. But the same method works for ANY sort of random walk, or in general, any *Markov chain*. This, for example, is the theory underlying the Google Pagerank algorithm, among many, many other applications.