

Last class we studied an example with complex eigenvalues.

Example. Consider

$$\frac{d\mathbf{Y}}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}.$$

We derived the “straight-line solution”

$$\mathbf{Y}_c(t) = e^{(-2+i)t} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1+i \end{pmatrix}.$$

We are interested in real-valued solutions. What good is this complex-valued solution?

Euler’s formula is the key to converting from complex-valued solutions to real-valued solutions. Last class we used the power series for e^x , $\sin x$, and $\cos x$ to derive

$$e^{bi} = \cos b + i \sin b.$$

In fact, we use Euler’s formula applied to the complex-valued function $e^{(a+bi)t}$.

But why does this help us solve our differential equation?

Theorem. Consider $d\mathbf{Y}/dt = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}$, where \mathbf{A} is a matrix with real entries. If $\mathbf{Y}_c(t)$ is a complex-valued solution, then both

$$\operatorname{Re}\mathbf{Y}_c(t) \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Im}\mathbf{Y}_c(t)$$

are real-valued solutions, and they are linearly independent.

Now we can derive the general solution to

$$\frac{d\mathbf{Y}}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}$$

using the complex-valued solution $\mathbf{Y}_c(t) = e^{(-2+i)t} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1+i \end{pmatrix}$.

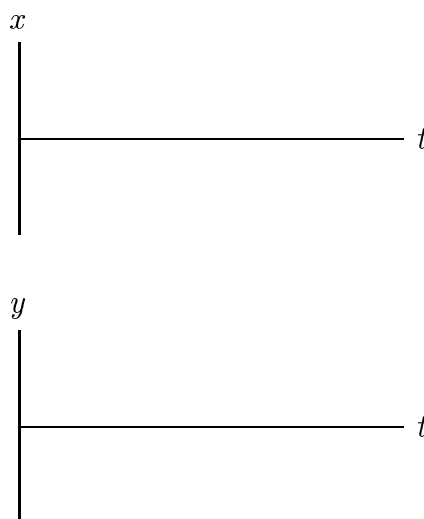
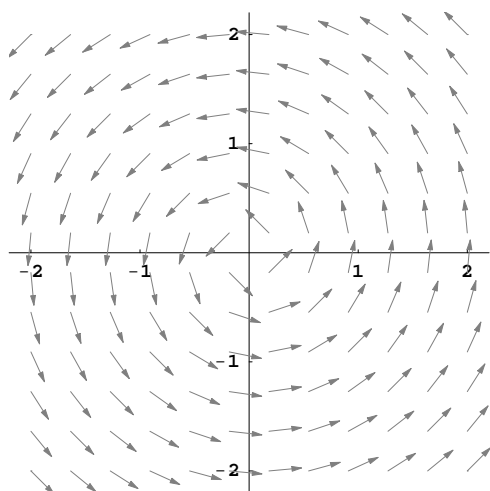
Three examples to illustrate the geometry of complex eigenvalues:

Example 1. $\frac{d\mathbf{Y}}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}$ where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{A} is $\lambda^2 + 1$, so the eigenvalues are $\lambda = \pm i$. One eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue $\lambda = i$ is

$$\mathbf{Y}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

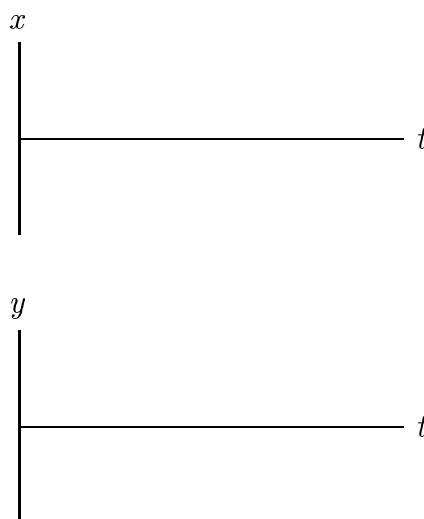
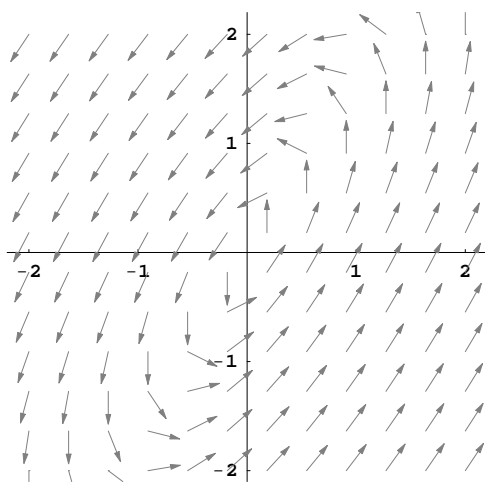


Example 2. $\frac{d\mathbf{Y}}{dt} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$ where

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{B} is $\lambda^2 + 4$, so the eigenvalues are $\lambda = \pm 2i$. One eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue $\lambda = 2i$ is

$$\mathbf{Y}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1+i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

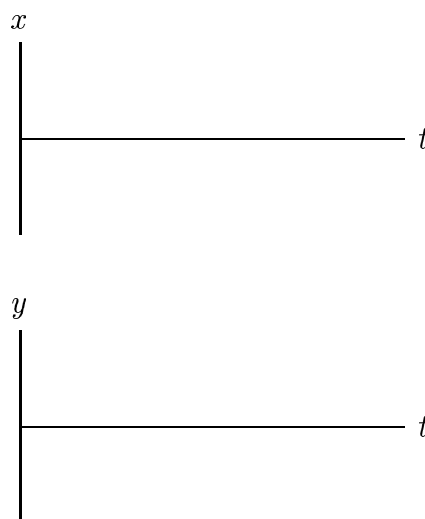
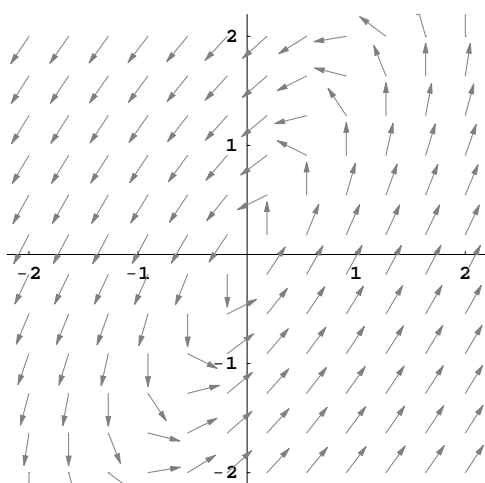


Example 3. $\frac{d\mathbf{Y}}{dt} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{Y}$ where

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.9 & -2 \\ 4 & -2.1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

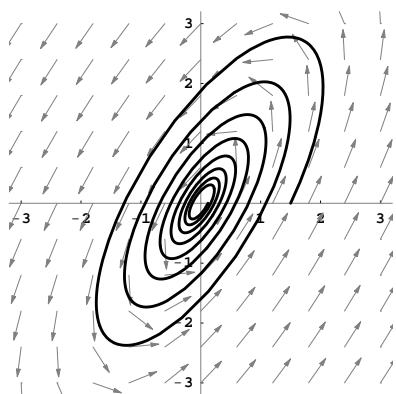
The characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{C} is $\lambda^2 + 0.2\lambda + 4.01$, so the eigenvalues are $\lambda = -0.1 \pm 2i$. One eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue $\lambda = -0.1 + 2i$ is

$$\mathbf{Y}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + i \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

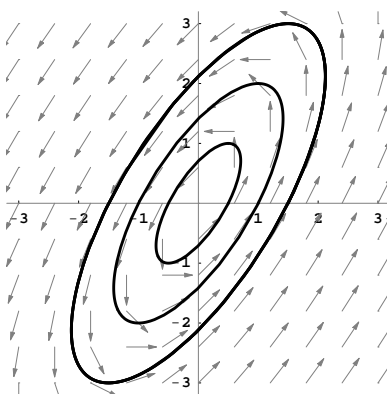


Summary: Linear systems with complex eigenvalues $\lambda = a \pm bi$

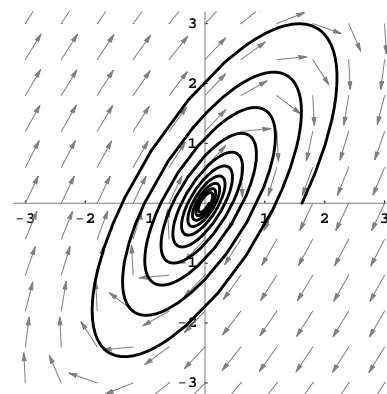
Here are the possible phase portraits:



spiral sink ($a < 0$)



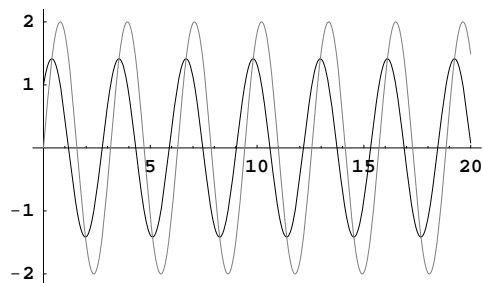
center ($a = 0$)



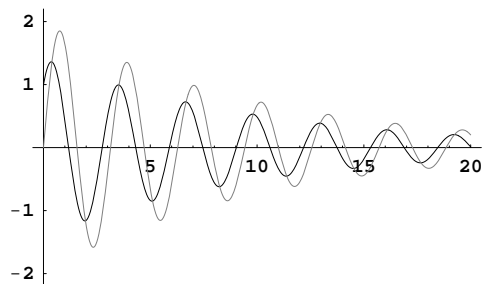
spiral source ($a > 0$)

What information can you get just from the complex eigenvalue alone?

Recall Example 2. The eigenvalues are $\lambda = \pm 2i$. Here are the $x(t)$ - and $y(t)$ -graphs of a typical solution:



In Example 3, the eigenvalues are $\lambda = -0.1 \pm 2i$. Here are the $x(t)$ - and $y(t)$ -graphs of a typical solution:



Frequency versus period: The solutions in Example 3 are not periodic in the strict sense. There is no time T such that

$$x(t + T) = x(t) \quad \text{and} \quad y(t + T) = y(t)$$

for all t . However, there is a period associated to these solutions. In the text, we call this the **natural period** of the solutions.

Perhaps it is best to think about these solutions as oscillating solutions that are decaying over time and to measure the oscillations in terms of their **frequency**.

Definition. The *frequency* F of an oscillating function $g(t)$ is the number of cycles that $g(t)$ makes in one unit of time.

Suppose that $g(t)$ is oscillating periodically with “period” T . What is its frequency F ?

Example. Consider the standard sinusoidal functions $g(t) = \cos \beta t$ and $g(t) = \sin \beta t$.

Suppose we measure frequency in radians rather than in cycles. This measure of frequency is often called **angular frequency**. Let’s denote the angular frequency by f . Then

$$f = 2\pi F.$$