

Topic of this homework: Pythagorean triples, Pell's equation, Fibonacci sequence

Deliverable: Answers to problems

1 Pythagorean triples

Euclid's formula for the Pythagorean triples a, b, c is: $a = p^2 - q^2$, $b = 2pq$, and $c = p^2 + q^2$.

1. What condition(s) must hold for p and q such that a , b , and c are always positive and nonzero?
2. Solve for p and q in terms of a , b and c .
3. The ancient Babylonians (c2000BEC) cryptically recorded (a,c) pairs of numbers on a clay tablet, archeologically denoted *Plimpton-322*.

To Do: Find p and q for the first five pairs of a and c from the tablet entries:

Table 1: First five (a,c) pairs of *Plimpton-322*.

a	c
119	169
3367	4825
4601	6649
12709	18541
65	97

4. Based on Euclid's formula, show that $c > (a, b)$.
5. What happens when $c = a$?
6. Is $b + c$ a perfect square? Discuss.

2 Pell's equation

Pell's equation is one of the most historic (i.e., important) equations of Greek number theory, because it was used to show that $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{I}$. We seek integer solutions

$$x^2 - Ny^2 = 1.$$

As shown in Lec 8 of the lecture notes, the solutions x_n, y_n for the case of $N = 2$ are given by the 2x2 matrix recursion

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = 1j \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

with $[x_0, y_0]^T = [1, 0]^T$ and $1j = \sqrt{-1} = e^{j\pi/2}$. It follows that the general solution to Pell's equation for $N = 2$ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = (e^{j\pi/2})^n \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

To calculate solutions to Pell's equation using the matrix equation above, we must calculate

$$A^n = e^{j\pi n/2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^n = e^{j\pi n/2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which becomes tedious for $n > 2$, since it requires $n \times 2 \times 2$ matrix multiplications.

Diagonalization of a matrix (“eigenvalue/eigenvector decomposition”): As derived in Appendix C of the lecture notes, the most efficient way to compute A^n is to *diagonalize* the matrix A , by finding its *eigenvalues* and *eigenvectors*.

The eigenvalues λ_k and eigenvectors \vec{e}_k of a square matrix A are related by

$$A\vec{e}_k = \lambda_k\vec{e}_k, \tag{1}$$

such that multiplying an eigenvector \vec{e}_k of A by the matrix A is the same as multiplying by a scalar, $\lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$ (the corresponding eigenvalue). The complete eigenvalue problem may be written as

$$AE = E\Lambda.$$

If A is a 2×2 matrix,¹ the matrices E and Λ (of eigenvectors and eigenvalues, respectively) are

$$E = [\vec{e}_1 \quad \vec{e}_2] \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the matrix equation $AE = [A\vec{e}_1 \quad A\vec{e}_2] = [\lambda_1\vec{e}_1 \quad \lambda_2\vec{e}_2] = E\Lambda$ contains Eq. 1 for each eigenvalue-eigenvector pair.

The *diagonalization* of the matrix A refers to the fact that the matrix of eigenvalues, Λ , has non-zero elements only on the diagonal. The key result is found by post-multiplication of the eigen value matrix by E^{-1} , giving

$$AEE^{-1} = A = E\Lambda E^{-1}. \tag{2}$$

If we now take powers of A , the n^{th} power of A is

$$\begin{aligned} A^n &= (E\Lambda E^{-1})^n \\ &= E\Lambda E^{-1}E\Lambda E^{-1} \cdots E\Lambda E^{-1} \\ &= E\Lambda^n E^{-1}. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

This is a very powerful result, because the n^{th} power of a diagonal matrix is extremely easy to calculate:

$$\Lambda^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, from Eq. 3 we can calculate A^n using only two matrix multiplications

$$A^n = E\Lambda^n E^{-1}.$$

¹These concepts may be easily extended to higher dimensions.

Finding the eigenvalues: The *eigenvalues* λ_k are determined by Eq. 1, by factoring out \vec{e}_k

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{e}_k &= \lambda_k\vec{e}_k \\ (A - \lambda_k I)\vec{e}_k &= \vec{0}. \end{aligned}$$

Matrix $I = [1, 0; 0, 1]^T$ is the *identity matrix*, having the dimensions of A , with elements δ_{ij} (i.e., diagonal elements $\delta_{11,22} = 1$ and off-diagonal elements $\delta_{12,21} = 0$).

The vector \vec{e}_k is not zero, yet when operated on by $A - \lambda_k I$, the result must be zero. The only way this can happen is if the operator is degenerate (has no solution), that is

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} (a_{11} - \lambda) & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & (a_{22} - \lambda) \end{bmatrix} = 0. \quad (4)$$

This means that the two equations have the same slope (the equation is degenerate).

This determinant equation results in a second degree polynomial in λ

$$(a_{11} - \lambda)(a_{22} - \lambda) - a_{12}a_{21} = 0,$$

the roots of which are the eigenvalues of the matrix A .

Finding the eigenvectors: An *eigenvector* \vec{e}_k can be found for each eigenvalue λ_k from Eq. 1,

$$(A - \lambda_k I)\vec{e}_k = \vec{0}.$$

The left side of the above equation becomes a column vector, where each element is an equation in the elements of \vec{e}_k , set equal to 0 on the right side. These equations are always *degenerate*, since the determinant is zero. Thus the two equations have the same slope.

Solving for the eigenvectors is often confusing, because they have arbitrary magnitudes, $\|\vec{e}_k\| = \sqrt{\vec{e}_k \cdot \vec{e}_k} = \sqrt{e_{k,1}^2 + e_{k,2}^2} = d$. From Eq. 1, you can only determine the *relative* magnitudes and signs of the elements of \vec{e}_k , so you will have to choose a magnitude d . It is common practice to *normalize* each eigenvector to have unit magnitude ($d = 1$).

To do:

Hint: Use Matlab's function `[E,Lambda] = eig(A)` to check your results!

1. Solutions to Pell's equation were used by the Pythagoreans to explore the value of $\sqrt{2}$. Explain why Pell's equation is relevant to $\sqrt{2}$.
2. Find the first 3 values of $[x_n, y_n]^T$ by hand and show that they satisfy Pell's equation for $N=2$.
3. By hand, find the eigenvalues λ_{\pm} of the 2×2 Pell's equation matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

4. By hand, show that the matrix of eigenvectors, E , is

$$E = [\vec{e}_+ \quad \vec{e}_-] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

5. Using the eigenvalues and eigenvectors you found for A , verify that

$$E^{-1}AE = \Lambda \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_+ & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_- \end{bmatrix}$$

6. Now that you have diagonalized A (Equation 3), use your results for E and Λ to solve for the $n = 10$ solution $[x_{10}, y_{10}]^T$ to Pell's equation with $N = 2$.

3 The Fibonacci sequence

The Fibonacci sequence is famous in mathematics, and has been observed to play a role in the mathematics of genetics. Let x_n represent the Fibonacci sequence,

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}, \quad (5)$$

where the current output sample, x_n , is equal to the sum of the previous two inputs. This is a ‘discrete time’ *recurrence relation*. To solve for x_n , we require some *initial conditions*. In this exercise, let us define $x_0 = 1$ and $x_{n < 0} = 0$. This leads to the Fibonacci sequence $\{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots\}$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Here we seek the general formula for x_n . Like the Pell’s equation, Eq. 5 has a recursive, eigen decomposition solution. To find it we must recast x_n as a 2x2 matrix relation, and then proceed as we did for the Pell case.

1. Show that Eq. 5 is equivalent to the 2×2 matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1} \\ y_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}. \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

and that the Fibonacci sequence x_n as described above may be generated by

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = A^n \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is the relationship between y_n and x_n ?

2. Write a Matlab program to compute x_n using the matrix equation above (you don’t need to turn in your code). Test your code using the first few values of the sequence. Using your program, what is x_{40} ?

Note: to make your program run faster, consider using the eigen decomposition of A , described by Eq. 3 from the Pell’s equation problem.

3. Using the eigen decomposition of the matrix A (and a lot of algebra), it is possible to obtain the general formula for the Fibonacci sequence,

$$x_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} - \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} \right]. \quad (7)$$

What are the eigenvalues λ_{\pm} of the matrix A ? How is the formula for x_n related to these eigenvalues?

4. Consider Eq. 7 in the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty \dots$

(a) What happens to each of the two terms $[(1 \pm \sqrt{5})/2]^{n+1}$?

(b) What happens to the ratio x_{n+1}/x_n ?

5. Prove that²

$$\sum_1^N f_n^2 = f_N f_{N+1}.$$

²I found this problem on a workset for Math 213 midterm (213practice.pdf).

6. Replace the Fibonacci sequence with

$$x_n = \frac{x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}}{2},$$

such that the value x_n is the average of the previous two values in the sequence.

- (a) What matrix A is used to calculate this sequence?
- (b) Modify your computer program to calculate the new sequence x_n . What happens as $n \rightarrow \infty$?
- (c) What are the eigenvalues of your new A ? How do they relate to the behavior of x_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$?
Hint: you can expect the closed-form expression for x_n to be similar to Eq. 7.

7. Now consider

$$x_n = \frac{x_{n-1} + 1.01x_{n-2}}{2}.$$

- (a) What matrix A is used to calculate this sequence?
- (b) Modify your computer program to calculate the new sequence x_n . What happens as $n \rightarrow \infty$?
- (c) What are the eigenvalues of your new A ? How do they relate to the behavior of x_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$?
Hint: you can expect the closed-form expression for x_n to be similar to Eq. 7.