

## 18.303 Problem Set 1 Solutions

### Problem 1: (5+(5+5)+(5+5))

- (a) Since  $\mathbf{v}$  is a constant,  $\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{v}^T \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{v}^T A \mathbf{x} = 0$ . Since this is given to be true for all times, including all  $t = 0$ , and for all initial conditions  $\mathbf{x}(0)$ , it means that  $\mathbf{v}^T A \mathbf{x} = 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$ , and hence  $\mathbf{v}^T A = 0$ , or (taking the transpose)  $A^T \mathbf{v} = 0$ . Hence  $\mathbf{v}$  is in the **left nullspace**  $N(A^T)$ . Equivalently,  $\mathbf{v}$  is orthogonal to the column space  $C(A)$ .
- (b) Given an eigensolution  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  ( $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ ) and  $A^* = A^{-1}$ , consider  $\mathbf{x}^* A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^* \lambda \mathbf{x} = \lambda |\mathbf{x}|^2 = (\mathbf{x}^* A) \mathbf{x} = (A^* \mathbf{x})^* \mathbf{x} = (A^{-1} \mathbf{x})^* \mathbf{x} = (\lambda^{-1} \mathbf{x})^* \mathbf{x} = \bar{\lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{x} = \bar{\lambda}^{-1} |\mathbf{x}|^2$ .  $|\mathbf{x}| \neq 0$ , so  $\lambda = \bar{\lambda}^{-1}$  and hence  $\lambda \bar{\lambda} = |\lambda|^2 = 1$ , thus  $|\lambda| = 1$  as desired.

Suppose we have two eigensolutions  $A\mathbf{x}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1$  and  $A\mathbf{x}_2 = \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2$  with distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ . Then  $\mathbf{x}_2^* A \mathbf{x}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_2^* \mathbf{x}_1 = (A^* \mathbf{x}_2)^* \mathbf{x}_1 = \bar{\lambda}_2^{-1} \mathbf{x}_2^* \mathbf{x}_1$ , similar to above. Since  $|\lambda_2| = 1$ , we can use the hint to conclude  $\bar{\lambda}_2^{-1} = \lambda_2$ , and hence  $(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \mathbf{x}_2^* \mathbf{x}_1 = 0$ . Since  $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 \neq 0$ , this means  $\mathbf{x}_2^* \mathbf{x}_1 = 0$ : the eigenvectors are orthogonal.

- (i) First, a familiar property of such recurrences from 18.06:  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = A\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = A\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = A^2\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = A^3\mathbf{b}$ , and so on, so that  $\mathbf{x}^{(n)} = A^n \mathbf{b}$ . (This could be proved more formally by induction.) Since we have an  $8 \times 8$  matrix with 8 eigenvectors, it is diagonalizable, so we can expand  $\mathbf{b}$  in the basis of eigenvectors:  $\mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^8 c_i \mathbf{x}_i$  for some coefficients  $c_i$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n)} = A^n \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^8 c_i \lambda_i^n \mathbf{x}_i,$$

since  $A^n$  multiplies each eigenvector by the corresponding eigenvalue to the  $n$ -th power. For large positive  $n$ , this is dominated by the two eigenvectors with largest  $|\lambda|$ :  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$ , so

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n)} \approx c_1 2^n \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 (-2)^n \mathbf{x}_2 = 2^n [c_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + (-1)^n c_2 \mathbf{x}_2],$$

with all other terms being exponentially smaller.

- (ii) If  $A$  is (real) symmetric, then the eigenvectors are orthogonal (since all the eigenvalues are distinct). Hence we can solve for  $c_i$  just by taking the dot product:

$$\mathbf{x}_i^* \mathbf{b} = c_i \mathbf{x}_i^* \mathbf{x}_i,$$

since all other terms in the sum are zero, and thus  $c_i = \mathbf{x}_i^* \mathbf{b} / \mathbf{x}_i^* \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_i^* \mathbf{b} / |\mathbf{x}_i|^2$ . So, from above:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n)} \approx 2^n \left[ \frac{\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^* \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{x}_1|^2} + (-1)^n \frac{\mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_2^* \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{x}_2|^2} \right].$$

Note that while it is common to assume that eigenvectors are normalized to length 1, this is *not* automatic and you were *not* given such a normalization.

### Problem 2: ((5+5+10)+5+5)

- (a) Suppose that we we change the boundary conditions to the *periodic* boundary condition  $u(0) = u(L)$ .
- (i) As in class, the eigenfunctions are sines, cosines, and exponentials, and it only remains to apply the boundary conditions.  $\sin(kx)$  is periodic if  $k = \frac{2\pi n}{L}$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  (excluding  $n = 0$  because we do not allow zero eigenfunctions and excluding  $n < 0$  because they are not linearly independent), and  $\cos(kx)$  is periodic if  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  (excluding  $n < 0$  since they are the same functions). The eigenvalues are  $-k^2 = -(2\pi n/L)^2$ .

$e^{kx}$  is periodic only for imaginary  $k = i\frac{2\pi n}{L}$ , but in this case we obtain  $e^{i\frac{2\pi n}{L}x} = \cos(2\pi nx/L) + i\sin(2\pi nx/L)$ , which is *not linearly independent* of the sin and cos eigenfunctions above. Recall from 18.06 that the eigenvectors for a given eigenvalue form a vector space (the null space of  $A - \lambda I$ ), and when asked for eigenvectors we only want a *basis* of this vector space. Alternatively, it is acceptable to start with exponentials and call our eigenfunctions  $e^{i\frac{2\pi n}{L}x}$  for all integers  $n$ , in which case we wouldn't give sin and cos eigenfunctions separately.

Similarly,  $\sin(\phi + 2\pi nx/L)$  is periodic for any  $\phi$ , but this is not linearly independent since  $\sin(\phi + 2\pi nx/L) = \sin \phi \cos(2\pi nx/L) + \cos \phi \sin(2\pi nx/L)$ .

- (ii) No, any solution will not be unique, because we now have a nonzero nullspace spanned by the constant function  $u(x) = 1$  (which is periodic):  $\frac{d^2}{dx^2} 1 = 0$ . Equivalently, we have a 0 eigenvalue corresponding to  $\cos(2\pi nx/L)$  for  $n = 0$  above.
- (iii) As suggested, let us restrict ourselves to  $f(x)$  with a convergent Fourier series. That is, as in class, we are expanding  $f(x)$  in terms of the eigenfunctions:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{i\frac{2\pi n}{L}x}.$$

(You could also write out the Fourier series in terms of sines and cosines, but the complex-exponential form is more compact so I will use it here.) Here, the coefficients  $c_n$ , by the usual orthogonality properties of the Fourier series, are  $c_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-i\frac{2\pi n}{L}x} f(x) dx$ .

In order to solve  $\frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} = f$ , as in class we would divide each term by its eigenvalue  $-(2\pi n/L)^2$ , but we can only do this for  $n \neq 0$ . Hence, we can only solve the equation if the  $n = 0$  term is absent, i.e.  $c_0 = 0$ . Applying the explicit formula for  $c_0$ , the equation is solvable (for  $f$  with a Fourier series) if and only if:

$$\boxed{\int_0^L f(x) dx = 0}.$$

There are other ways to come to the same conclusion. For example, we could expand  $u(x)$  in a Fourier series (i.e. in the eigenfunction basis), apply  $d^2/dx^2$ , and ask *what is the column space* of  $d^2/dx^2$ ? Again, we would find that upon taking the second derivative the  $n = 0$  (constant) term vanishes, and so the column space consist of Fourier series missing a constant term.

The same reasoning works if you write out the Fourier series in terms of sin and cos sums separately, in which case you find that  $f$  must be missing the  $n = 0$  cosine term, giving the same result.

- (b) No. For example, the function 0 (which must be in any vector space) does not satisfy those boundary conditions. (Also adding functions doesn't work, scaling them by constants, etcetera.)
- (c) We merely pick any twice-differentiable function  $q(x)$  with  $q(L) - q(0) = -1$ , in which case  $u(L) - u(0) = [v(L) - v(0)] + [q(L) - q(0)] = 1 - 1 = 0$  and  $u$  is periodic. Then, plugging  $v = u - q$  into  $\frac{d^2}{dx^2} v(x) = f(x)$ , we obtain

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} u(x) = f(x) + \frac{d^2 q}{dx^2},$$

which is the (periodic- $u$ ) Poisson equation for  $u$  with a (possibly) modified right-hand side.

For example, the simplest such  $q$  is probably  $q(x) = x/L$ , in which case  $d^2 q/dx^2 = 0$  and  $u$  solves the Poisson equation with an *unmodified* right-hand side.