

SOLUTIONS

Math 46, Applied Math (Spring 2011): Final

3 hours, 80 points total, 10 questions (worth between 5 and 9 points each). Good luck!

1. [9 points] Consider the Dirichlet eigenvalue problem for $y(x)$ in the interval $x \in (1, e)$,

$$-x^2 y'' = \lambda y, \quad y(1) = y(e) = 0. \quad \leftarrow \text{Dirichlet BCs.}$$

- [3] (a) Prove that any eigenvalues λ have a definite sign (which?) *positive*.

Energy method: $-\int_1^e y x^2 y'' dx = \lambda \int_1^e y^2 dx$
 (mult. by y & integrate)
 fails! since can't kill the yy' term...
 Instead try putting x^2 on other side: $-\int_1^e y y'' dx = \lambda \int_1^e \frac{1}{x^2} y^2 dx$ since $y=0$ not an eig. func.
 [tricky] by parts $\underbrace{\frac{1}{x^2} > 0}_{\forall x \in (1, e)}$
 $= \underbrace{\int_1^e y'^2 dx}_{> 0} - [yy']_1^e$ so $\lambda = \frac{\text{positive}}{\text{positive}} > 0$.
 BCs kill this

- [4] (b) Find WKB approximations to the n th eigenvalue λ_n and corresponding eigenfunction $y_n(x)$.

Put in std form: $\varepsilon^2 y'' + k(x)^2 y = 0, \quad \varepsilon^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda}$

$k(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ so $y_{\text{WKB}}(x) = \frac{A}{\sqrt{k(x)}} \sin \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_1^x k(s) ds + \frac{B}{\sqrt{k(x)}} \cos \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_1^x k(s) ds$

BCs @ $x=1$ mean $y_{\text{WKB}}(1) = 0$

so $B=0$, A = arbitrary, choose 1.

constant is definite integral.

For $y_{\text{WKB}}(e) = 0$ need

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} \int_1^e k(s) ds = n\pi$$

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon_n = \frac{1}{n\pi}$$

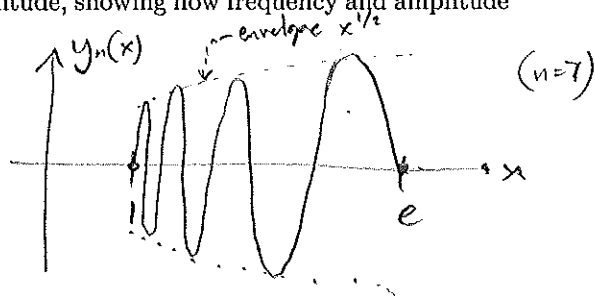
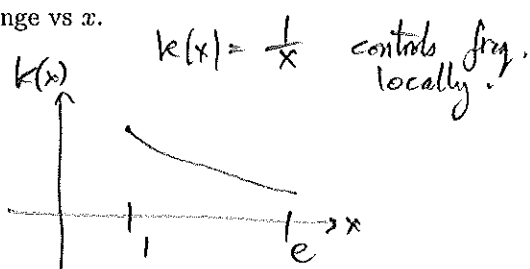
$$\int_1^e \frac{1}{s} ds = \ln s \Big|_1^e = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow y_n^{\text{WKB}}(x) = x^{1/2} \sin \left(n\pi \int_1^x \frac{1}{s} ds \right) = x^{1/2} \sin(n\pi \ln x)$$

$$\lambda_n^{\text{WKB}} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_n^2} \approx n^2 \pi^2 \quad n=1, 2, \dots$$

[2]

- (c) Sketch an eigenfunction of very large eigenvalue magnitude, showing how frequency and amplitude change vs x .



[BONUS] In this particular problem, what are the accuracies of λ_n and $y_n(x)$?

It's actually Cauchy-Euler so can solve exactly via $y = x^r$, so $x^2 y'' + \lambda y = 0$ gives $r(r-1) + \lambda = 0$, ie $r = \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \sqrt{1-4\lambda})$ so $y(x) = x^{1/2} \sin(\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}-\lambda} \ln x) + \cos$ term. Setting $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}-\lambda} = n\pi$ gives $\lambda_n = n^2 \pi^2 - \frac{1}{4}$ so error is $+1/4$ for WKB λ 's! (relative error $O(n^{-2})$). Eigenfns. have zero error (!) unusual.

2. [6 points] The radius r of the early phase of a nuclear fireball explosion is assumed to depend only on time t , the total energy released e (units ML^2T^{-2}), and the density of the surrounding gas ρ . Following G. I. Taylor in the 1940's, fill a dimensions matrix, and deduce the most specific formula you can for how the radius depends on the other variables.

$$\begin{matrix} M \\ L \\ T \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} r & t & e & \rho \\ & & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & & 2 & -3 \\ & 1 & -2 & \end{bmatrix}$$

full rank (since 1st three cols are lin. indep.), rank = 3.

$$\Rightarrow p = \# \text{ free vars} = \# \text{ cols} - \text{rank} = 4 - 3 = 1$$

$$\pi_1 = \frac{e t^2}{\rho r^5} \quad \text{by combining cols. to get } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Buckingham Pi Thm tells you. $f(\pi_1) = 0$, or $\pi_1 = c$

$$\Rightarrow r = c \left(\frac{e t^2}{\rho} \right)^{1/5} = c \frac{e^{1/5} t^{2/5}}{\rho^{1/5}}$$

c is unknown dim'less parameter.

3. [9 points] Consider the perturbed initial-value problem for $y(t)$ on $t > 0$,
 $y'' + y + 4\varepsilon y y'^2 = 0, \quad 0 < \varepsilon \ll 1, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad y'(0) = 0$
 note this also causes factor ω^2 but it doesn't matter for 2-term approx.

- [7] (a) Use the Poincaré-Lindstedt method to give a 2-term approximation. [Hint: rescale $\tau = \omega t$ where ω is perturbed from the value 1. Don't forget to match initial conditions. Partial credit if you can only do regular perturbation; doing that will jog your memory anyway...]

rescale $\tau = \omega t = (1 + \omega_1 \varepsilon + \dots)t$

so $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}$ replaced by $\omega^2 \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2}$ (just like choosing $t_c = \frac{1}{\omega}$).
 \Rightarrow in τ variable, $(\text{prime} = \frac{d}{d\tau})$
 $\underbrace{(1 + \omega_1 \varepsilon + \dots)}_{\omega^2} (y_0'' + \varepsilon y_1'' + \dots) + y_0 + \varepsilon y_1 + \dots = -4\varepsilon \underbrace{(1 + \dots)}_{\omega^2} (y_0 + \dots) (y_0' + \dots)^2$

Zeroth-order ($\varepsilon=0$): $y_0'' + y_0 = 0$ w/ ICs as above, so $y_0(\tau) = \cos \tau$

$O(\varepsilon')$: $2\omega_1 y_0'' + y_1'' + y_1 = -4y_0 y_0'^2 = -4\cos \tau \sin^2 \tau$
 \downarrow
 $-\cos \tau$ homog. solus. $\begin{cases} \cos \tau \\ \sin \tau \end{cases}$ power-reduction identity $\cos 3\tau - \cos \tau$

So to remove the on-resonance driving $-\cos \tau$ on RHS, choose $\omega_1 = +1/2$

Then, $y_1'' + y_1 = \cos 3\tau$ with ICs for y_1 of $y_1(0) = y_1'(0) = 0$.

Meth. Und. Coeffs: $\begin{cases} Y = A \cos 3\tau \\ \Rightarrow Y'' = -9A \cos 3\tau \end{cases} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} Y = A \cos 3\tau \\ \Rightarrow Y'' = -9A \cos 3\tau \end{matrix}} \right\} \text{ so } -9A + A = 1, \quad A = -1/8$

Gen. soln. $y_1(\tau) = -\frac{1}{8} \cos 3\tau + c_1 \sin \tau + c_2 \cos \tau$

$y_1(0) = 0$ so $c_2 = +1/8$. $y_1'(0) = 0$ so $c_1 = 0$.

Soln. $y_1(\tau) = \frac{1}{8} (\cos \tau - \cos 3\tau)$

Write out 2-term approx: $y_a = y_a(\tau) = \cos \tau + \frac{\varepsilon}{8} (\cos \tau - \cos 3\tau) + \dots$

where $\tau = (1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \dots)t$

sign means oscillator period shorter.

[2]

(b) Discuss briefly any differences in the uniformity of the approximation, and the reason, if regular perturbation theory were used instead.

Poincaré-Lindstedt is uniform approx. for $t > 0$. (error uniformly bounded).

In contrast, regular perturbation theory would give a secular term of the form $\varepsilon t \sin t$ that is unbounded as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$, not a uniform approx.

4. [5 points] By converting into an ODE, find the unique solution $u(t)$ to the integral equation,

$$4 \int_0^t (t-s)u(s)ds + u(t) = t, \quad t > 0.$$

← set $t=0$ to get $0 + u(0) = 0$
so $u(0) = 0$, IC.

$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\right)$ using Leibniz rules

$$4 \left(\frac{t}{0} \right) u(t) + 4 \int_0^t u(s)ds + u'(t) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\right) 4u(t) + u''(t) = 0$$

← set $t=0$ to get $4 \cdot 0 + u'(0) = 1$
so $u'(0) = 1$, IC.

const-coeff. homog. ODE, 2nd order,

$$e^{rt} \quad u'' + 4u = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow r^2 + 4 = 0$$

so $e^{\pm 2it}$, or $\{\sin 2t, \cos 2t\}$ are L.I. soln pairs.

IC $u(0) = 0$ means no cos term.

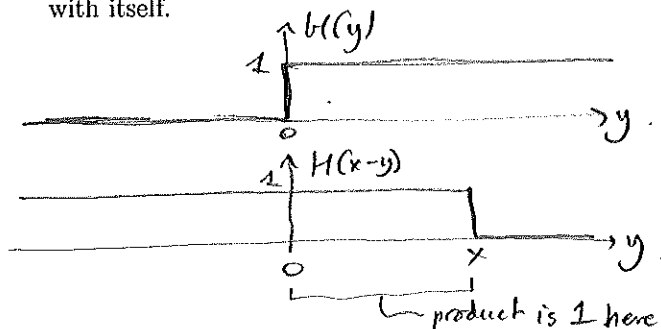
$$\Rightarrow u(t) = A \sin 2t, \quad \text{insert } u'(0) = 1 \text{ to get } A = 1/2.$$

$$\Rightarrow u(t) = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t$$

5. [9 points] Fourier & convolution stuff.

direct computation

- [3] (a) Consider the 'step' function $H(x) = 1$ for $x > 0$, zero otherwise. Compute the convolution of H with itself.

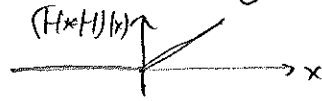


$$(H * H)(x) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(x-y) H(y) dy = \int_0^x 1 dy$$

= 0 if $x < 0$ since argument of $H(x-y)$ never > 0 .

For $x > 0$, $H(x-y)$ has positive argument only for $y < x$, giving $\int_0^x 1 dy = x$.

So, $(H * H)(x) = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



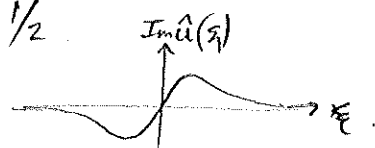
- [3] (b) Find the Fourier transform of the function $u(x) = xe^{-x^2/2}$. [Hint: it's a derivative]

If $v(x) = -e^{-x^2/2}$ then $u(x) = \frac{dv}{dx}$.

Taking deriv. corresponds to mult. by $(-i\xi)$ of Fourier transform.

$\hat{v}(\xi) = -\sqrt{2\pi} e^{-\xi^2/2}$ using Table w/ $a = 1/2$

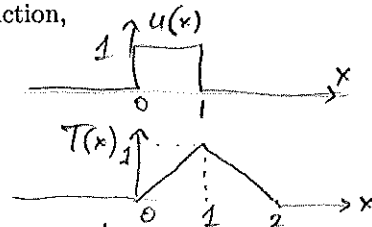
$\Rightarrow \hat{u}(\xi) = -i\xi \hat{v}(\xi) = i\sqrt{2\pi} \xi e^{-\xi^2/2}$



Note: same functional form as u itself!

- [3] (c) Recall that in class you showed that the 'top hat' function $u(x) = 1$ for $0 < x < 1$ and zero otherwise, when convolved with itself, gives the continuous 'triangle hat' function,

$$T(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 2-x, & 1 < x < 2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Find the Fourier transform of the function T .

Could be done directly but integrations would be a mess!

If $T = u * u$ in 'real space' (x variable) then by the convolution theorem, $\hat{T} = \hat{u} \hat{u}$ in Fourier space (ξ variable).

Compute, $\hat{u}(\xi) = \int_0^1 e^{i\xi x} dx = \frac{1}{i\xi} e^{i\xi x} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{e^{i\xi} - 1}{i\xi}$

is actually prod. of sine and plane wave $e^{i\xi/2}$.

so $\hat{T}(\xi) = \hat{u}(\xi)^2 = -\frac{(e^{i\xi} - 1)^2}{\xi^2}$

parabolic PDE is homogeneous.

6. [8 points] Consider the reaction-diffusion equation in $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ with zero-flux boundary condition, Neumann BC, homogeneous.

$$u_t = \Delta u - \alpha u, \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad t > 0, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega, \quad u(x, 0) = f(x), \quad x \in \Omega$$

where $\alpha(x)$ is a given spatially-dependent decay rate, and f a given initial distribution. IC.

(6) (a) Consider the simple case $\alpha(x) = 0$. Prove that there is at most one solution.

Say u_1, u_2 are any two solutions, then let $u = u_1 - u_2$,
and let $E(t) := \int_{\Omega} u(x, t)^2 dx$, then

$$E'(t) = 2 \int_{\Omega} u u_t dx \stackrel{\text{using PDE}}{=} 2 \int_{\Omega} u \Delta u dx \stackrel{\text{Green's 1st Identity}}{=} -2 \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 dx + 2 \int_{\partial\Omega} u \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} dx$$

zero, BCs.

$$\leq 0 \quad \forall t.$$

But $E(0) = 0$ since IC for u is $u_1(x, 0) - u_2(x, 0) = f(x) - f(x) \equiv 0$.

Also $E(t)$ by construction is $\geq 0 \quad \forall t > 0$.

Combining the three facts gives $E(t) = 0 \quad \forall t \geq 0$, so $u(x, t) \equiv 0 \quad \forall x, \forall t \geq 0$.

$\Rightarrow u_1 \equiv u_2 \quad \forall x \in \Omega, \forall t > 0$ and the solution is unique.

[2] (b) Adapt your proof to general $\alpha(x)$. What condition on $\alpha(x)$ enables your uniqueness proof to still work?

We have instead $\frac{1}{2} E'(t) = \int_{\Omega} u u_t dx \stackrel{\text{PDE}}{=} \int_{\Omega} u \Delta u dx - \int_{\Omega} \alpha(x) u^2 dx$

≤ 0 by reasoning above.

so if $\boxed{\alpha(x) \geq 0}$ at each $\vec{x} \in \Omega$, we still get $E'(t) \leq 0$
and the rest of the proof is as before.

[in fact, this is the best we can do with energy method, since $\int_{\Omega} u \Delta u = 0$
is achieved by the nontrivial constant func $u(x) = 1$]

7. [9 points] K is a symmetric Fredholm integral operator acting on the domain $(0, \pi)$, with a complete set of eigenfunctions $\{\sin nx\}$ and eigenvalues $1/n^2$, labeled by $n = 1, 2, \dots$

- [2] (a) Find the general solution u to the equation $(Ku)(x) - u(x) = \sin x$, $0 < x < \pi$, or explain why it has no solution:

$$Ku - \lambda u = f \quad \lambda = 1, \text{ is } \lambda_1 \text{ an eigenvalue.}$$

\Rightarrow only a solution if $(f, \phi_1) = 0$, but $f(x) = \sin x = \phi_1(x)$
so no solution possible.

- [3] (b) Find the general solution u to the equation $(Ku)(x) - u(x) = \sin 2x$, $0 < x < \pi$, or explain why it has no solution:

as above, $\lambda = \lambda_1$, but now $(f, \phi_1) = (\sin 2x, \sin x) = 0$, so \exists nonunique soln.

Eigenfunction expansion gives $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n \phi_n(x)$ with $f_2 = 1$, $f_n = 0$ for $n \neq 2$.

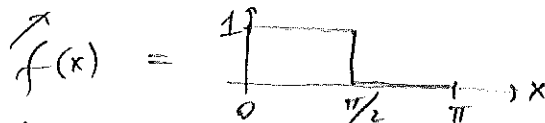
(*) eqn from lectures, $(\lambda_n - \lambda) c_n = f_n \quad \forall n$, so $c_1 = \text{anything}$.

$$n=2: (\frac{1}{2^2} - \lambda) c_2 = f_2 = 1. \quad \text{so } c_2 = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{4} - 1} = -\frac{4}{3}$$

$$u(x) = c \sin x - \frac{4}{3} \sin 2x, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- [4] (c) Find the general solution u to the equation $(Ku)(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < x \leq \pi/2 \\ 0, & \pi/2 < x < \pi \end{cases}$, or explain why it has no solution:

ϕ_n orthogonal set (by symmetry of K),



$$f_n = \frac{(f, \phi_n)}{\|\phi_n\|^2} = \frac{\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin nx \, dx}{\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 nx \, dx} = \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{n} (\cos nx)_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{2}{\pi n} (1 - \cos \frac{n\pi}{2})$$

$\lambda = 0$ not an eigenvalue \Rightarrow unique soln.

Here $\lambda = 0$, so $\lambda_n c_n = f_n$, $c_n = n^2 f_n$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{4}{\pi n}, & n \text{ even} \\ \frac{2}{\pi n} (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}}, & n \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$

$$u(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 \frac{1 - \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}}{n} \sin nx = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n (1 - \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}) \sin nx$$

Fourier series solution.

[BONUS] Explain whether the solution u to part (c) is in $L^2([0, \pi])$:


By Parseval (ϕ_n complete), $\|u\|_2^2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |c_n|^2$ but c_n grow like n .
 \Rightarrow sum divergent \Rightarrow soln not in $L^2(0, \pi)$.

8. [8 points] Electric potential u in an upper half-plane $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $y > 0$, filled with anisotropic medium, satisfies a PDE with a decay condition at infinity,

$$a^2 u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0, \quad u(x, 0) = f(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad u(x, y) \text{ bounded as } y \rightarrow +\infty,$$

with $a > 0$ a given anisotropy constant, and f a given boundary voltage function.

[1] (a) Is the PDE hyperbolic, parabolic, or elliptic?

since $a^2 x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is ellipse 

Also it's a generalization of Laplace's eqn, which is elliptic.

[7] (b) Use the Fourier transform method to derive the (unique) solution $u(x, y)$. Your answer should be in terms of a and f only. (Don't forget to explain where the $y \rightarrow +\infty$ condition enters.)

FT in x , holding y const:

$$-a^2 \xi^2 \hat{u}(\xi, y) + \hat{u}_{yy}(\xi, y) = 0$$

2nd-order, growth/decay-type
 is 1 ODE in y at each ξ .

Gen. Soln: $\hat{u}(\xi, y) = \hat{A}(\xi) e^{-a\xi y} + \hat{B}(\xi) e^{a\xi y}$, \hat{A}, \hat{B} unknown functions.

But $\hat{A}(\xi) = 0$ for $\xi < 0$ } if u bounded as $y \rightarrow +\infty$.
 $\hat{B}(\xi) = 0$ for $\xi > 0$ }

We may gather the remaining halves of \hat{A}, \hat{B} as $\hat{u}(\xi, y) = \hat{c}(\xi) e^{-ay/|\xi|}$,

But at $y=0$, $\hat{u}(\xi, 0) = \hat{c}(\xi) e^{0} = \hat{c}(\xi) \stackrel{?}{=} f(\xi)$ by BCs, so $\hat{c} \equiv \hat{f}$. \hat{c} unknown func.

$\Rightarrow \hat{u}(\xi, y) = \hat{f}(\xi) \cdot e^{-ay/|\xi|}$

product becomes
 convolution back
 in x -space:

inv FT is $\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{dy}{a^2 y^2 + x^2}$
 the variable

use Table row $e^{-a|x|} \xleftrightarrow{F} \frac{2a}{a^2 + \xi^2}$
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ix\xi} e^{-a|\xi|} d\xi = \frac{2a}{a^2 + \xi^2}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\xi x} e^{-a|\xi|} d\xi = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{a}{a^2 + x^2}$

Setting $x \rightarrow -x$ we get $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(e^{-a|\xi|}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{a}{a^2 + x^2}$

$$u(x, y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{ay}{a^2 y^2 + (x-z)^2} f(z) dz$$

note how x replaced by $(x-z)$

← note a new integration variable (not y !) needed to perform the convolution

note: lin. comb. of Dirichlet & Neumann.

9. [8 points] Consider the Sturm-Liouville problem $-u'' = f(x)$ on the interval $0 < x < 1$, with mixed boundary conditions $\alpha u(0) + u'(0) = 0$, and $u(1) = 0$. Here α is some (Robin) constant.

[6] (a) For fixed $\alpha \neq 1$, compute the Green's function for this SLP.

$A = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$ $p \equiv 1$ in SLP std. form.

u_1 : want $\underbrace{Au_1 = 0}$ & $\alpha u_1(0) + u_1'(0) = 0$, left-hand BC only.

$u_1 = ax + b$ general so $u_1(0) = b$ $u_1'(0) = a$ $\xrightarrow{BC} \alpha b + a = 0$ ie $a = -\alpha b$

$\Rightarrow u_1(x) = -\alpha b x + b = b(1 - \alpha x)$ can set $b = 1$.

u_2 : $u_2 = ax + b$ but $u_2(1) = a + b = 0$ so $a = -b$.

$\Rightarrow u_2(x) = -bx + b = b(1 - x)$ can set $b = 1$.

$W = W(x) = u_1 u_2' - u_2 u_1' = -(1 - \alpha x) + \alpha(1 - x) = \alpha - 1, \forall x.$

$$g(x, \xi) = \begin{cases} -\frac{u_1(x) u_2(\xi)}{p(\xi) W(\xi)}, & x < \xi \\ -\frac{u_1(\xi) u_2(x)}{p(\xi) W(\xi)}, & x > \xi \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{(1 - \alpha x)(1 - \xi)}{1 - \alpha}, & x < \xi \\ \frac{(1 - \alpha \xi)(1 - x)}{1 - \alpha}, & x > \xi \end{cases}$$

Green's func. formula.

[2] (b) Discuss as concretely as you can the solvability for general f , in the case when $\alpha = 1$.

When $\alpha = 1$ $g(x, \xi)$ d.n.e. by above denominator (W) vanishing $\forall x$.

I.e. $Lu = 0$ has non-trivial soln ϕ , what is it? $\phi \equiv u_1 \equiv u_2, \forall x$.
ie $\phi(x) = 1 - x$ spans the nullspace of L .

Either remember SLP has soln only if $(f, \phi) = 0$ ie $\int_0^1 (1 - x)f(x)dx = 0$.

Or, derive this via: suppose u is soln, then $0 = (u, L\phi) \underset{L\phi=0}{=} (Lu, \phi) \underset{\text{self-adjointness of } L}{=} (f, \phi) \underset{\text{SLP}}{=}$

10. [9 points] Short questions.

- (3) (a) Compute the outer solution (with its correct constant) for the perturbed BVP $\varepsilon y'' + (x-2)y' + y = 0$, $y(0) = 1$, $y(1) = 0$, with $0 < \varepsilon \ll 1$.

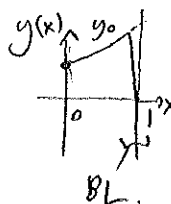
Where are the boundary layers?

\hookrightarrow negative at both ends \Rightarrow no BL @ $x=0$, but is bdy layer @ $x=1$.
 \Rightarrow Outer soln. must match BC @ $x=0$.

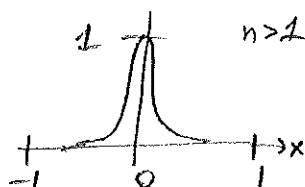
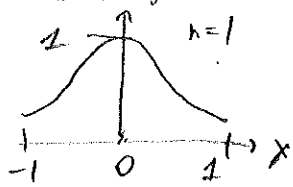
Set $\varepsilon=0$: $(x-2)y' + y = 0 \Rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{y} = \int \frac{dx}{x-2} \Rightarrow \ln y = -\ln(x-2) + c$.

$\Rightarrow y_0(x) = \frac{c}{x-2}$ match $y_0(0) = \frac{c}{-2} = 1$ so $c = -2$

$\Rightarrow y_0(x) = \frac{-2}{x-2} = \frac{1}{1-x/2}$



- [3] (b) Is the sequence $f_n(x) = e^{-nx^2}$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, convergent to the zero function on $(-1, 1)$ pointwise? uniformly? in L^2 ?



sequence gets narrower but has $f_n(0) = 1 \forall n \Rightarrow$ not pointwise.

uniform stronger than pointwise \Rightarrow not uniform, either. (Also: $\max_{-1 \leq x \leq 1} |f_n| = 1, \forall n$)

It is convergent in $L^2(-1, 1)$, since $\int_{-1}^1 e^{-2nx^2} dx \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2nx^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 $y = \sqrt{2n}x$ $\underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy}_{\text{some const. } (= \sqrt{\pi})}$

- [3] (c) Is $10^9(e^x - 1 - x) = O(x^2)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$? Prove your answer.

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{10^9(e^x - 1 - x)}{x^2} \xrightarrow{\text{H\^opital}} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 10^9 \frac{e^x - 0 - 1}{2x} \xrightarrow{\text{H\^opital}} 10^9 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{2} = \frac{1}{2} 10^9 = \text{const.}$

since ratio tends to const, and both funes continuous,

yes, $10^9(e^x - 1 - x) = O(x^2)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$.

- (d) [BONUS] Recall that if K is any symmetric operator with a complete set of eigenfunctions, the kernel of K^{-1} may be written as an eigenfunction expansion. Derive instead an eigenfunction expansion for the kernel of K itself:

$K\phi_n = \lambda_n \phi_n$ \hookrightarrow this is $g(x, y) = \sum_n \frac{\phi_n(x) \phi_n(y)}{\lambda_n}$
 $u(x) = \sum_n c_n \phi_n(x)$ with $c_n = (\phi_n, u) = \int_a^b \phi_n(y) u(y) dy$.

so, $(Ku)(x) = \sum_n c_n \lambda_n \phi_n(x) \overset{\text{sub } c_n}{=} \int_a^b \left[\sum_n \lambda_n \phi_n(x) \phi_n(y) \right] u(y) dy$.
 $\underbrace{\left[\sum_n \lambda_n \phi_n(x) \phi_n(y) \right]}_{\text{must be kernel of } K}$