

- The simplest problems: single eqn/scalar problems for unknown u

$$\text{Statics : } au = b \qquad \text{Dynamics : } \frac{du}{dt} = au - b, \quad u(0) = c$$

$$\text{Solutions : } u = b/a \qquad u(t) = (c - b/a)e^{at} + b/a$$

- The next level: matrix/vector systems

$$\text{Statics : } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b} \qquad \text{Solution : } \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

but, what if you couldn't use the inverse matrix " \mathbf{A}^{-1} "?

There's a different way to write the soln if you know the eigenvalues (λ) and eigenvectors (ϕ) of matrix \mathbf{A} (from $\mathbf{A}\phi = \lambda\phi$) then

$$\text{Eigen-expansion Solution : } \mathbf{u} = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k \phi_k \qquad [\text{IOU: how to calculate } c_k \text{'s}]$$

$$\text{Also works for Dynamics problems: } \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{b}, \quad \mathbf{u}(0) = \mathbf{c}$$

- The general level (551): linear operator problems

Writing solns as eigen-expansions works for a large array of types of problems:

- ODE's, example: $A \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + B \frac{du}{dx} + Cu = f(x)$
- Integral equations
- PDE's in 1-D, 2-D, 3-D
- Other classes of linear problems, numerical methods (FFT, Galerkin FEM), and linear stability analysis (comparing experiments and model predictions)

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- Key issues will be determining the $\{\lambda, \phi\}$'s, how to write the expansion and how to calculate the coefficients....
 - The eigen-expansion approach also connects to: Green's fcn integrals, spectral theory, the Fredholm alternative theorem, Bessel fcn expansions, Fourier transforms, Laplace transforms, complex contour integrals....
 - 551 is not about specific formulas or solns, it's about a solution process for getting solns and properties (is the soln unique? does a soln exist at all? and results you need to calculate from the soln) in the most direct way.

Inner products $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ are generalizations of the vector dot product.

For real vectors, $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, define the inner product as $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \equiv \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$.

Other definitions for the inner product are made for other classes of problems (ODEs, PDEs, ...). All inner products share common properties:

- Inner products are used to define norms, orthogonality, adjoints.
- The **linearity property** of inner products: for all vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$:

$$\langle \underline{a}\mathbf{u} + \underline{b}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \underline{a}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \underline{b}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \underline{a}\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \underline{b}\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

inner prod. of linear-combination-of-vectors = lin. combo. of inner-prods.
(i.e. can expand-out sums, and factor-out constant scalar multiples)

- The **norm property** of inner products: for all vectors \mathbf{u} 's,

$$|\mathbf{u}|^2 \equiv \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{and } |\mathbf{u}| = 0 \text{ if and only if } \mathbf{u} = \vec{0}$$

- **Orthogonality** of vectors is defined by the inner product,

$$\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$$

Linear Operators, \mathbf{L} are a generalization of matrices (\mathbf{u} vector, \mathbf{L} matrix)

Calculating $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}$ produces another vector, $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}$ (\mathbf{L} for Linear operator)

- Eigenvalues λ and eigenvectors ϕ of \mathbf{L} are defined by:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{L}\phi = \lambda\phi} \quad \text{with} \quad |\phi| \neq 0$$

Eigen-vals/vecs calculated using: $\det(\mathbf{L} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$ then $(\mathbf{L} - \lambda_k\mathbf{I})\phi_k = \vec{0}$

- The adjoint operator \mathbf{L}^* is defined by the inner product adjoint relation:

$$\boxed{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{L}\mathbf{u} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{L}^*\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle} \quad \text{for any } \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$$

The adjoint eigenvalues γ and adjoint eigenvectors ψ are defined by:

$$\mathbf{L}^*\psi = \gamma\psi \quad \text{with} \quad |\psi| \neq 0 \implies \det(\mathbf{L}^* - \gamma\mathbf{I}) = 0 \rightarrow (\mathbf{L}^* - \gamma_j\mathbf{I})\psi_j = \vec{0}$$

For real vectors, with $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$, for real matrix \mathbf{L} , the adjoint relation:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{L}\mathbf{u} \rangle &= \mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{L}\mathbf{u})^T = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T (\mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{v}) = \\ &= (\mathbf{u}^T (\mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{v}))^T = (\mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{u} = \langle \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Using $c = c^T$ for scalars, and $(ABC)^T = C^T B^T A^T \implies \mathbf{L}^* = \mathbf{L}^T$ (transpose).

Further results for Linear Operators on real vectors:

- Relations between adjoint eigenvalues and regular eigenvalues:

$$\det(\mathbf{L}^T - \gamma \mathbf{I}) = 0 \quad \text{vs.} \quad \det(\mathbf{L} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$$

$$\text{Start: } \det(\mathbf{L}^T - \gamma \mathbf{I}) = \det((\mathbf{L}^T - \gamma \mathbf{I})^T) = \det(\mathbf{L} - \gamma \mathbf{I}) = 0$$

Using properties: $\det(\mathbf{M}) = \det(\mathbf{M}^T)$, $(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N})^T = \mathbf{M}^T + \mathbf{N}^T$, $(\mathbf{L}^T)^T = \mathbf{L}$, $\mathbf{I}^T = \mathbf{I}$

So the adjoint eigenvalues satisfy the eig-val eqn, and are the same: $\boxed{\gamma = \lambda}$

But the eig-vecs ϕ_k and adj-eig-vecs ψ_j are generally different.

- Relations between eigenvectors and adjoint eigenvectors:

$\boxed{\text{If } \lambda_k \neq \lambda_j \text{ then } \phi_k \perp \psi_j}$

The bi-orthogonality of the sets of eigenvectors

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Start with } \lambda_k \langle \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle &= \langle \psi_j, \lambda_k \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via linearity}] \\ &= \langle \psi_j, \mathbf{L} \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via } \mathbf{L} \phi_k = \lambda_k \phi_k] \\ &= \langle \mathbf{L}^T \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via adjoint relation}] \\ &= \langle \lambda_j \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via } \mathbf{L}^* \psi_j = \lambda_j \psi_j] \\ &= \lambda_j \langle \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via linearity, End}] \end{aligned}$$

$$(\text{Start}) - (\text{End}) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad (\lambda_k - \lambda_j) \langle \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle = 0 \quad \implies \quad \boxed{\langle \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle = 0}$$

Completeness: The set of vec's $\{\phi_k\}$ is called a **complete basis set** if every given vec $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written as a linear combination of the ϕ_k basis vec's:

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k \phi_k$$

How do we determine the c_k coefficients for \mathbf{w} ?

Key step: **Orthogonal projection** = The universal problem-solving approach.

Always starts with taking the inner product of both sides of the equation with each of the adjoint eigenvectors ψ_j for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$: $\langle \psi_j, \text{Eqn} \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_j, \mathbf{w} \rangle &= \left\langle \psi_j, \sum c_k \phi_k \right\rangle && [\text{via } \langle \psi_j, \text{LHS} \rangle = \langle \psi_j, \text{RHS} \rangle] \\ &= \sum_k c_k \langle \psi_j, \phi_k \rangle && [\text{via linearity}] \\ &= c_j \langle \psi_j, \phi_j \rangle && [\text{via bi-orthogonality for } j \neq k] \end{aligned}$$

and finally, swap index letters, j and k , to get a formula for each coefficient:

$$\Rightarrow \quad c_k = \frac{\langle \psi_k, \mathbf{w} \rangle}{\langle \psi_k, \phi_k \rangle} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\langle \psi_k, \mathbf{w} \rangle}{\langle \psi_k, \phi_k \rangle} \phi_k$$