VV286 Honors Mathematics IV Ordinary Differential Equations Assignment 3

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1

1.1

Proof: $\forall \varphi(x) = e^{-x^2/2} p(x) \in V$,

$$\begin{split} H\varphi &= -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}e^{-x^2/2}p(x) + x^2e^{-x^2/2}p(x) \\ &= -\frac{d}{dx}(e^{-x^2/2}\cdot(-x)p(x) + e^{-x^2/2}p'(x)) + x^2e^{-x^2/2}p(x) \\ &= e^{-x^2/2}\cdot(-x)xp(x) + e^{-x^2/2}(p(x) + xp'(x)) \\ &- (e^{-x^2/2}\cdot(-x)p'(x) + e^{-x^2/2}p''(x)) + x^2e^{-x^2/2}p(x) \\ &= e^{-x^2/2}(p(x) + 2xp'(x) - p''(x)) \end{split}$$

Since $p(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$, $p(x) + 2xp'(x) - p''(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. So $H\varphi \in V$. So $H\varphi \in V$ if $\varphi \in V$.

1.2

$$\forall \varphi(x) = e^{-x^{2}/2} p_{1}(x) \in V, \psi(x) = e^{-x^{2}/2} p_{2}(x) \in V,$$

$$\langle H\psi, \varphi \rangle - \langle \psi, H\varphi \rangle$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H\psi \cdot \varphi dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi \cdot H\varphi dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}/2} (p_{2}(x) + 2xp_{2}'(x) - p_{2}''(x)) \cdot e^{-x^{2}/2} p_{1}(x) dx$$

$$- \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}/2} p_{2}(x) \cdot e^{-x^{2}/2} (p_{1}(x) + 2xp_{1}'(x) - p_{1}''(x)) dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} (2xp_{1}(x)p_{2}'(x) - p_{1}(x)p_{2}''(x) - 2xp_{1}'(x)p_{2}(x) + p_{2}(x)p_{1}''(x)) dx$$

$$= e^{-x^{2}} (p_{1}'(x)p_{2}(x) - p_{1}(x)p_{2}'(x)) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

Since $p_1(x), p_2(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$, then use L'Hopital's rule we can get that

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} e^{-x^2} p_1'(x) p_2(x) = \lim_{x \to +\infty} e^{-x^2} p_1(x) p_2'(x) = 0$$

so $\langle H\psi, \varphi \rangle = \langle \psi, H\varphi \rangle$, i.e. H is symmetric.

1.3

$$\begin{split} \forall \varphi(x) &= e^{-x^2/2} p(x) \in V,, \\ &(HA - AH) \varphi - 2A \varphi \\ &= ((-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}) + x^2) (-\frac{d}{dx} + x) e^{-x^2/2} p(x) - (-\frac{d}{dx} + x) ((-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}) + x^2) e^{-x^2/2} p(x) \\ &- 2 (-\frac{d}{dx} + x) e^{-x^2/2} p(x) \end{split}$$

$$= ((-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}) + x^2)(-(e^{-x^2/2}(-x)p(x) + e^{-x^2/2}p'(x)) + xe^{-x^2/2}p(x))$$

$$- (-\frac{d}{dx} + x)(e^{-x^2/2}(p(x) + 2xp'(x) - p''(x)))$$

$$- 2(-(e^{-x^2/2}(-x)p(x) + e^{-x^2/2}p'(x)) + xe^{-x^2/2}p(x))$$

$$= e^{-x^2/2}(2xp(x) - p'(x) + 2x(2xp(x) - p'(x))' - (2xp(x) - p'(x))'')$$

$$+ e^{-x^2/2}(-xp(x) - 2x^2p'(x) + xp''(x) + p'(x) + 2p'(x) + 2xp''(x) - p'''(x))$$

$$- e^{-x^2/2}(xp(x) + 2x^2p'(x) - xp''(x)) - 2e^{-x^2/2}(2xp(x) - p'(x))$$

$$= e^{-x^2/2}(6xp(x) + (4x^2 - 5)p'(x) - 4xp''(x) + p'''(x))$$

$$+ e^{-x^2/2}(-xp(x) + (-2x^2 + 3)p'(x) + 3xp''(x) - p'''(x))$$

$$+ e^{-x^2/2}(-5xp(x) + (-2x^2 + 2)p'(x) + xp''(x))$$

$$= 0$$

So $(HA - AH)\varphi = 2A\varphi$ for all $\varphi \in V$. So [H, A] = HA - AH = 2A.

1.4

Since $\psi \in V$ is an eigenfunction of H for the eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$H\psi = \lambda\psi$$

then

$$H(A\psi) = 2A\psi + AH\psi = 2A\psi + A(\lambda\psi) = 2A\psi + \lambda A\psi = (\lambda + 2)A\psi$$

So $A\psi$ is an eigenfunction of H for the eigenvalue $\lambda + 2$.

1.5

$$H_0(x) = (-1)^0 e^{x^2} e^{-x^2} = 1$$

$$H_1(x) = (-1)^1 e^{x^2} \frac{d}{dx} e^{-x^2} = -e^{x^2} \cdot e^{-x^2} \cdot (-2x) = 2x$$

$$H_2(x) = (-1)^2 e^{x^2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} e^{-x^2} = e^{x^2} \frac{d}{dx} (e^{-x^2} \cdot (-2x)) = -2e^{x^2} \cdot e^{-x^2} ((-2x)x + 1) = 4x^2 - 2$$

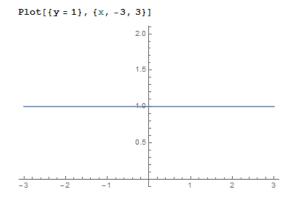


Figure 1: Figure for $H_0(x) = 1$

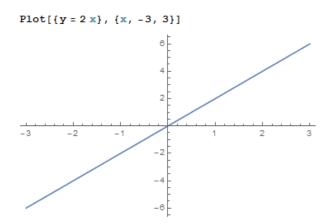


Figure 2: Figure for $H_1(x) = 2x$

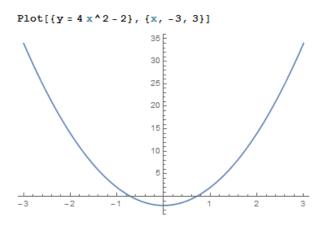


Figure 3: Figure for $H_2(x) = 4x^2 - 2$

1.6

$$H(e^{-x^2/2}) = e^{-x^2/2} (1 + 2x \cdot \frac{d1}{dx} - \frac{d^21}{dx^2}) = e^{-x^2/2}$$

$$e^{x^2/2} \left(-\frac{d}{dx} \right) (e^{-x^2/2} f(x)) = -e^{x^2/2} \cdot (e^{-x^2/2} (-x) f(x) + e^{-x^2/2} f'(x))$$

$$= x f(x) + \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

$$= A f(x)$$

So
$$H(e^{-x^2/2}) = e^{-x^2/2}$$
, $Af(x) = e^{x^2/2} \left(-\frac{d}{dx}\right) (e^{-x^2/2}f(x))$.

Use induction to prove that $\psi_n(x) = e^{-x^2/2}H_n(x)$ is eigenfunctions of H to eigenvalues $\lambda_n = 2n + 1, n \in \mathbb{N}$

- 1. When n=0, $\psi_0(x)=e^{-x^2/2}$ and $H\psi_0(x)=(2\cdot 0+1)\psi_0(x)$. So the statement holds when n=0.
- 2. Assume that when n = k, $H\psi_k = (2k+1)\psi_k$. Then according to former questions, $A\psi_k$ is an eigenfunction of H for the eigenvalue 2k+1+2=2(k+1)+1.

$$A\psi_{k} = -e^{x^{2}/2} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right) (e^{-x^{2}/2} \psi_{k}(x))$$

$$= -e^{x^{2}/2} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right) (e^{-x^{2}/2} \cdot e^{-x^{2}/2} (-1)^{k} e^{x^{2}} \frac{d^{k}}{dx^{k}} e^{-x^{2}})$$

$$= (-1)^{k+1} e^{x^{2}/2} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right) \left(\frac{d^{k}}{dx^{k}} e^{-x^{2}}\right)$$

$$= (-1)^{k+1} e^{-x^{2}/2} \cdot e^{x^{2}} \left(\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}} e^{-x^{2}}\right)$$

$$= e^{-x^{2}/2} H_{k+1}(x)$$

$$= \psi_{k+1}$$

so ψ_{k+1} is an eigenfunction of H for the eigenvalue 2(k+1)+1. So the statement also holds when n=k+1.

To sum up, the eigenfunctions of H to eigenvalues $\lambda_n = 2n+1, n \in \mathbb{N}$, may be written in the form $\psi_n(x) = e^{-x^2/2}H_n(x)$.

1.7

$$H_{n+1}(x) - 2xH_n(x) - H'_n(x)$$

$$= (-1)^{n+1}e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n+1}}{dx^{n+1}}(e^{-x^2}) - 2x(-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2}) - \frac{d}{dx}((-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2}))$$

$$= (-1)^{n+1}e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n+1}}{dx^{n+1}}(e^{-x^2}) - 2x(-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2})$$

$$+ (-1)^{n+1}(e^{x^2} \cdot 2x \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2}) + e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n+1}}{dx^{n+1}}(e^{-x^2}))$$

$$= 2(-1)^{n+1}e^{x^2} \frac{d^{n+1}}{dx^{n+1}}(e^{-x^2}) - 4x(-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2})$$

$$= 2(-1)^{n+1}e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2} \cdot (-2x)) - 4x(-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2})$$

$$= 0$$

So $H_{n+1}(x) = 2xH_n(x) + H'_n(x)$. Now we use induction to prove that $H'_n = 2nH_{n-1}$.

- 1. When n=1, $H_1'=(2x)'=2=2\cdot 1\cdot H_0$, so the statement holds when n=1.
- 2. Assume that when n = k, $H'_k = 2kH_{k-1}$, then

$$H'_{k+1} = (2xH_k(x) + H'_k(x))'$$

$$= 2H_k(x) + 2xH'_k(x) + H''_k(x)$$

$$= 2H_k(x) + 2x(2kH_{k-1}(x)) + (2kH_{k-1}(x))'$$

$$= 2H_k(x) + 4kxH_{k-1}(x) + 2k(H_k(x) - 2xH_{k-1}(x))$$

$$= 2(k+1)H_k(x)$$

So when n = k + 1 the statement also holds.

To sum up, $H'_n = 2nH_{n-1}, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$.

1.8

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*,$

$$H_n(x)\frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}}(e^{-x^2}) = H_n(x)\frac{H_{n-1}(x)}{(-1)^{n-1}e^{x^2}}$$

since $\psi_n(x) = e^{-x^2} H_n(x) \in V$, $H_n(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. So $H_n(x), H_{n-1}(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. Then

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} H_n(x) \frac{H_{n-1}(x)}{(-1)^{n-1} e^{x^2}} = 0$$

So $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*$

$$||\psi_{n}(x)||^{2} = \langle \psi_{n}, \psi_{n} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{n}^{2}(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e^{-x^{2}/2} H_{n}(x))^{2} dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e^{-x^{2}}(-1)^{n} e^{x^{2}} \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} (e^{-x^{2}}) H_{n}(x)) dx$$

$$= (-1)^{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n}(x) \cdot \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} (e^{-x^{2}}) dx$$

$$= (-1)^{n} (H_{n}(x) \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} (e^{-x^{2}}) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H'_{n}(x) \cdot \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} (e^{-x^{2}}) dx$$

$$= (-1)^{n+1} \cdot 2n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n-1}(x) \cdot \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} (e^{-x^{2}}) dx$$

$$= 2n ||\psi_{n-1}(x)||^{2}$$

For n = 0,

$$||\psi_0(x)||^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e^{-x^2/2})^2 dx \xrightarrow{t=\sqrt{2}x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{\pi}$$

So $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*$

$$||\psi_n(x)||^2 = 2n||\psi_{n-1}(x)||^2 = (2n)(2(n-1))2n||\psi_{n-2}(x)||$$

$$= \cdots$$

$$= (2n)(2(n-1))\cdots(2\cdot 1)||\psi_0(x)||^2$$

$$= 2^n n! \sqrt{\pi}$$

To sum up, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, ||\psi_n||^2 = \sqrt{\pi} 2^n n!$

2

2.1

$$det(A - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow det\begin{pmatrix} -2 - \lambda & -2 \\ -5 & 1 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0 \Leftrightarrow (-2 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) - (-2) \cdot (-5) = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \lambda^2 + \lambda - 12 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = -4 \lor \lambda = 3$$

For $\lambda_1 = -4$,

$$(A - \lambda_1 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -5 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow v_1 = v_2$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_1 = -4$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_1} = V_{-4} = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$ For $\lambda_2 = 3$,

$$(A - \lambda_2 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -5 & -2 \\ -5 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow v_1 = -\frac{2}{5}v_2$$

Hence any vector of the form $v=\alpha\begin{pmatrix} -2\\5 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha\in\mathbb{R}\backslash\{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_2=3$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_2}=V_3=\{v\in\mathbb{R}^2:v=\alpha\begin{pmatrix} -2\\5 \end{pmatrix},\alpha\in\mathbb{R}\}$ To sum up,

- 1. One eigenvalue of A is $\lambda_1 = -4$, eigenvector is $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_1} = V_{-4} = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}.$
- 2. Another eigenvalue of A is $\lambda_2 = 3$, eigenvector is $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_2} = V_3 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$.

2.2

$$det(B - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow det \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 - \lambda & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (2 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda)^2 - (1 - \lambda) - (1 - \lambda) = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 1, \lambda_3 = 3$$

For $\lambda_1 = 0$,

$$(B - \lambda_1 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow v_1 = v_2 = v_3$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_1 = 0$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_1} = V_0 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$

For $\lambda_2 = 1$,

$$(B - \lambda_2 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow v_1 = -v_3 \land v_2 = 0$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_2 = 1$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_2} = V_1 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$

For $\lambda_3 = 3$,

$$(B - \lambda_3 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow -2v_1 = v_2 = -2v_3$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_3 = 3$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_3} = V_3 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^2 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$ To sum up,

- 1. One eigenvalue of B is $\lambda_1 = 0$, eigenvector is $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_1} = V_0 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}.$
- 2. One eigenvalue of B is $\lambda_2 = 1$, eigenvector is $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_2} = V_1 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$.
- 3. Another eigenvalue of A is $\lambda_3 = 3$, eigenvector is $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and the corresponding eigenspace is $V_{\lambda_3} = V_3 = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$.

3

Set

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Set

$$F(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}, \lambda)$$

$$=\langle x, Ax \rangle + \lambda(1 - |x|^{2})$$

$$=\langle \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x_{1} + a_{12}x_{2} + \dots + a_{1n}x_{n} \\ a_{21}x_{1} + a_{22}x_{2} + \dots + a_{2n}x_{n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_{1} + a_{n2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{nn}x_{n} \end{pmatrix} \rangle + \lambda(1 - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + \dots + x_{n}^{2}))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{i}x_{j} + \lambda(1 - (x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} + \dots + x_{n}^{2}))$$

Since $A = A^T$, $\forall i, j \in [1, n] \cap \mathbb{N}$, $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$. Then $\forall i \in [1, n] \cap \mathbb{N}$

$$\frac{d}{dx_i}F(x_1,\dots,x_n,\lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^n (a_{ij} + a_{ji})x_j - 2\lambda x_i = 2(a_{j1}x_1 + \dots + (a_{ii} - \lambda)x_i + \dots + a_{jn}x_n)$$

Because $D_{1-|x|^2} = (-2x_1, -2x_2, \dots, -2x_n)$ always has a 1×1 submatrix with determinant different from zero, so we can apply the Lagrange multiplier rule. Then when $Q_A(x) = \langle x, Ax \rangle$ reaches maximum or minimum,

$$\begin{cases} (a_{11} - \lambda)x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0 \\ a_{21}x_1 + (a_{22} - \lambda)x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = 0 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + (a_{nn} - \lambda)x_n = 0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} (A - \lambda \mathbb{1})x = 0 \\ x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1 \end{cases}$$

So when $Q_A(x) = \langle x, Ax \rangle$ reaches maximum or minimum, the Lagrange multiplier is an eigenvalue of A (This is because the equations are the same and $x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 = 1$ ensures that the λ has corresponding non-trival eigenvector so that λ can be an eigenvalue). And therefore

$$Q_A(x) = \langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle x, \lambda x \rangle = \lambda \langle x, x \rangle = \lambda$$

So the maximum (resp. minimum) value of Q_A when restricted to the unit sphere is given by the largest (resp. smallest) eigenvalue of A.

4

4.1

Since r = h = 30cm = 0.3m, M = 1kq, m = 0.1kq,

$$\frac{M}{12}(3r^2+4h^2)+mh^2 = \frac{1}{12}(3+4)\cdot 0.3^2 + 0.1\cdot 0.3^2 = 0.0615, -mrh = -0.1\cdot 0.3\cdot 0.3 = -0.009$$

$$\frac{M}{12}(3r^2 + 4h^2) + m(h^2 + r^2) = 0.0615 + 0.1 \cdot 0.3^2 = 0.0705$$
$$\frac{M}{2}r^2 + mr^2 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.3^2 + 0.1 \cdot 0.3^2 = 0.054$$

So

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0615 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.0705 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & 0.054 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overrightarrow{L} = I\overrightarrow{\omega} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0615 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.0705 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & 0.054 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.009 \\ 0 \\ 0.054 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \langle \overrightarrow{\omega}, I \overrightarrow{\omega} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -0.009 \\ 0 \\ 0.054 \end{pmatrix} \rangle = 0.027$$
 To sum up,
$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0615 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.0705 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & 0.054 \end{pmatrix}, \overrightarrow{L} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.009 \\ 0 \\ 0.054 \end{pmatrix}, T = 0.027.$$

4.2

$$det(I - \lambda \mathbb{1}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow det \begin{pmatrix} 0.0615 - \lambda & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.0705 - \lambda & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & 0.054 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (0.0705 - \lambda)((0.0615 - \lambda)(0.054 - \lambda) - 0.009^{2}) = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \lambda_{1} = 0.0705, \lambda_{2} = 0.048, \lambda_{3} = 0.0675$$

For $\lambda_1 = 0.0705$,

$$(I - \lambda_1 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -0.009 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & -0.0165 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow v_1 = v_3 = 0$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_1 = 0.0705$.

For $\lambda_2 = 0.048$,

$$(I - \lambda_2 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0.0135 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.0225 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & 0.006 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow 3v_1 = 2v_3 \land v_2 = 0$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_2 = 0.048$.

For $\lambda_3 = 0.0675$,

$$(I - \lambda_3 \mathbb{1})v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -0.006 & 0 & -0.009 \\ 0 & 0.003 & 0 \\ -0.009 & 0 & -0.0135 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow 2v_1 = -3v_3 \wedge v_2 = 0$$

Hence any vector of the form $v = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is an eigenvector $\lambda_3 = 0.0675$.

So principal moments of inertia are $\lambda_1 = 0.0705, \lambda_2 = 0.048, \lambda_3 = 0.0675$, and the principal axes of inertia are $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$.

According to former exercises, T is maximal (minimal) if and only if λ is maximal.

So for axis $\frac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, T is minimal; for axis $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, T is maximal.

For
$$\overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\overrightarrow{L} = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = 0.048 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, for $\overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\overrightarrow{L} = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_2 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_1 = I \overrightarrow{\omega}_$

 $0.0705 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. So the nutation is parallel to the corresponding axis.