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Make-up Examination

Phys209: Mathematical Methods in Physics I

2025/01/20

Please carefully read below before proceeding!

I acknowledge by taking this examination that I am aware of all academic honesty conducts that govern this course and how they also apply for this examination. I therefore accept that I will not engage in any form of academic dishonesty including but not limited to cheating or plagiarism. I waive any right to a future claim as to have not been informed in these matters because I have read the syllabus along with the academic integrity information presented therein.

I also understand and agree with the following conditions:

- (1) any of my work outside the designated areas in the "fill-in the blank questions" will not be graded;
- (2) I take full responsibility for any ambiguity in my selections in "multiple choice questions";
- (3) any of my work outside the answer boxes in the "classical questions" will not be graded;
- (4) any page which does not contain both my name and student id will not be graded;
- (5) any extra sheet that I may use are for my own calculations and will not be graded.

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This exam has a total of 2 questions, some of which may be for bonus points. You can obtain a maximum grade of 34+0 from this examination.

Question	Points	Score
1	26	
2	8	

Question	Points	Score
Total:	34	



Notations & Conventions 1

This section contains various useful definitions to refer while solving the problems. Note that it might contain additional information not covered in class, so please do not panick: the questions do not necessarily refer to everything in this section.

• The non-negative integer power of an object A (denoted A^n) is defined recursively as

$$A^0 = \mathbb{I}$$
, $A^n = A \cdot A^{n-1} \ \forall n \ge 1$ (1)

with respect to the operation · (such as matrix multiplication or differentiation) and its identity object \mathbb{I} .

• Exponentiation of an object A (denoted e^A) is

$$e^A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n \tag{2}$$

where A^n is the n-th power of the object A.

- Logarithm of an object A (denoted $\log A$) is defined as the inverse of the exponentiation. For objects for which the exponentiation is not a monomorphism (such as complex numbers), logarithm is a relation (also called multivalued function). Conventionally, one imposes restrictions on the domain to ensure that logarithm acts as a function; for instance, for a complex number $z = re^{i\theta} \in \mathbb{C}$ with $(r,\theta) \in (\mathbb{R}^+,\mathbb{R})$, we can define $\log z = i\theta_p + \log r$ where $0 \le \theta_p < 2\pi$ is called the principal value of θ .
- The generalized power of an object A (denoted A^{α}) is defined as

$$A^{\alpha} = e^{\alpha \log A} \tag{3}$$

If exponentiation is not a monomorphism when acting on the domain of A, A^{α} is not a function but a relation unless a principle domain is selected (similar to the logarithm).

• Generalized exponentiation of an object A (denoted α^A) is defined as

$$\alpha^A = e^{A\log\alpha} \tag{4}$$

Depending on the available values for $\log \alpha$, α^A may mean multiple different functions. However, each one is still a proper function, not a multi-valued function.

- Trigonometric functions cos, sin, tan, cot, csc, sec are defined in terms of the exponential via the equations $e^{\pm iA} = \cos(A) \pm i \sin(A)$, $\tan(A) = \frac{1}{\cot(A)} = \frac{\sin(A)}{\cos(A)}$ (5) csc(A)sin(A) = 1, sec(A)cos(A) = 1 (6)
- Hyperbolic functions cosh, sinh, tanh, coth, csch, sech are defined in terms of the exponential via equations $e^{\pm A} = \cosh(A) \pm \sinh(A), \tanh(A) = \frac{1}{\coth(A)} = \frac{\sinh(A)}{\cosh(A)}$ (7) $\operatorname{csch}(A)\sinh(A) = 1$, $\operatorname{sech}(A)\cosh(A) = 1$ (8)
- Inverse Trigonometric/Hyperbolic functions are denoted with an arc prefix in their naming, i.e. $\arcsin(x) := \sin^{-1}(x)$. Like logarithm, these objects are relations (not functions) unless their domain is restricted.

• The Kronecker symbol (Kronecker-delta) is defined $\delta: \{\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}\} \to \mathbb{Z}$ (9)

$$\delta = \{i, j\} \to \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

• The Dirac-delta generalized function δ is (for all practical purposes of a Physicist) defined via the relation

$$\int_{\mathcal{A}} f(y)\delta(x-y)dy = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{A} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
A useful representation of this generalized function is

$$\delta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ikx} \frac{dk}{2\pi}$$
 (12)

• Heaviside generalized function θ is (for all practical purposes of a Physicist) defined via the relations

$$\int_{a}^{b} \theta(x)f(x)dx = \begin{cases}
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx & \text{if } a \ge 0 \\
\int_{0}^{b} f(x)dx & \text{if } a < 0
\end{cases}$$
(13)

This definition implies that $\theta(x) = 1$ for x > 0 and $\theta(x) = 0$ for x < 0; however, it does not fix f(0). We choose the convention f(0) = 1/2; this ensures

$$sgn(x) = 2\theta(x) - 1 = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ for } x > 0\\ 0 \text{ for } x = 0\\ -1 \text{ for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$
 (14)

- A particular permutation of n objects is denoted as $\overline{(i_1 i_2 \dots i_n)}$ where $i_1 \neq i_2 \neq \dots \neq i_n \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. A permutation $(i_1 \dots i_n)$ is said to be an even (odd) permutation of $(k_1 \dots k_n)$ if the two are identical after the permutation of an even (odd) number of adjacent indices. For example, (2431) is an even permutation of (2143) and an odd permutation of (2134).
- Levi-Civita symbol ϵ is defined as (15)

$$\epsilon = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \rightarrow \begin{cases} & \text{if } (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n) \text{ is an even} \\ & \text{permutation of } (12 \dots n) \end{cases}$$

$$= \{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \rightarrow \begin{cases} & \text{if } (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n) \text{ is an odd} \\ -1 & \text{permutation of } (12 \dots n) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• The determinant function (denoted det) is defined

$$\det = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \to \sum_{i_1,\dots,i_n} \epsilon_{i_1\dots i_n} a_{1i_1} \dots a_{ni_n}$$

where \mathcal{A} is any field such that $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$, $\forall i, j$.

• The adjugate function (denoted adj) is defined as

$$\operatorname{adj} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \dots & & & & \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(20)$$

$$b_{k_n i_n} = \sum_{\substack{i_1, \dots, i_{n-1} \\ k_1, \dots, k_{n-1}}} \frac{\epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_n} \epsilon_{k_1 \dots k_n} a_{i_1 k_1} \dots a_{i_{n-1} k_{n-1}}}{(n-1)!}$$
(21)

where \mathcal{A} is any field such that $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$, $\forall i, j$

• Inverse of an object A is denoted as A^{-1} and is defined with respect to an operation "." and its identity element \mathbb{I} via the equations $A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = \mathbb{I}$. If "." is matrix multiplication, then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\operatorname{adj}(A)}{\det A}$$
• The trace function (denoted tr) is defined as

$$\operatorname{tr}:\mathfrak{M}_{n\times n}(\mathcal{A})\to\mathcal{A}$$
 (23)

$$\operatorname{tr} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \to \sum_{i} a_{ii} \qquad (24)$$

where \mathcal{A} is any field such that $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$, $\forall i, j$.

- Wronskian matrix of a set of functions $\{f_1(x),\ldots,f_n(x)\}\$ is defined as a square matrix where the first row is the set of the functions and the i-th row is (i-1)—th derivative of the functions for all $n \geq i \geq 2$.
- A complex number z is (for all practical purposes of a Physicist) a pair of two real numbers (x, y) where one can construct z via z = x + iy (i is called the imaginary unit with the property $i^2 = -1$; conversely, one can extract x and y via x = Re(z), y = Im(z).
- Complex conjugation (denoted *) is a function defined to act on complex numbers as

$$*: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$$
 (25)

$$* = z \to (z^* = \operatorname{Re}(z) - i\operatorname{Im}(z)) \tag{26}$$

• Matrix transpose (denoted T) is a function defined $T:\mathfrak{M}_{n\times n}(\mathcal{A})\to\mathfrak{M}_{n\times n}(\mathcal{A})$

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} (28)$$

where \mathcal{A} is any field such that $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{A}$, $\forall i, j$.

• Hermitian conjugation (also called *conjugate trans*pose, adjoint, or dagger) is a function defined as

$$\dagger: \mathfrak{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{C}) \to \mathfrak{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{C}) \tag{29}$$

$$\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^* & a_{21}^* & \dots & a_{n1}^* \\ a_{12}^* & a_{22}^* & \dots & a_{n2}^* \\ \dots & & & & \\ a_{1n}^* & a_{2n}^* & \dots & a_{nn}^* \end{pmatrix}$$
(30)

• Characteristic polynomial of any square matrix A: $\det\left(A - \lambda_i \mathbb{I}\right) = 0$

• Laplace transform is an integral transform (denote \mathcal{L} which converts a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ into another function $\hat{f} = \mathcal{L}(f)$ such that

$$\hat{f}: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$$
, $\hat{f}(s) = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-xs}dx$ (32)

For $meromorphic\ \hat{f}$ (i.e. $\frac{\text{polynomial}}{\text{polynomial}}$), the inverse is computed by rewriting $\hat{f}(s)$ as a sum $\sum_{i} a_{i}(s+r_{i})^{-n_{i}-1}$ which is clearly (for some $c_{k,\ell}$) the Laplace transform of $f(x) = \sum_{i} e^{-r_i x} (c_{i,1} + c_{i,2} x + \dots c_{i,n_i} x^{n_i})$. Formally,

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \;, \qquad f(x) = \int\limits_{\gamma - i\infty}^{\gamma + i\infty} \hat{f}(s) e^{xs} \frac{ds}{2\pi i}$$
 (33)

where the *contour integral* in the complex plane is chosen appropriately based on the convergence.

• Convolution of two functions f and g (denote f * g) is the operation that becomes multiplication in the Laplace domain, i.e. $\mathcal{L}(f * g) \equiv \mathcal{L}(f)\mathcal{L}(g)$; equivalently,

$$(f * g)(x) = \int_{0}^{x} f(y)g(x - y)dy$$
 (34)

- Commutator is a higher order function which takes two functions $f, g : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$ for any type \mathcal{A} , and gives a new function $[f,g]: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by cascading their action. It is defined on an object $x \in \mathcal{A}$ as [f,g](x) = f(g(x)) - g(f(x)).
- Polar coordinates in \mathbb{R}^d $(r, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_{d-1})$ are defined in terms of the Cartesian coordinates (x_1, \ldots, x_d) as

$$x_1 = r\cos(\theta_1), \quad x_d = x_{d-1}\tan(\theta_{d-1})$$
 (35)

$$x_i = x_{i-1} \tan(\theta_{i-1}) \cos(\theta_i)$$
 for $1 < i < d$ (36)

In two-dimensions, this reduces to the familiar polar coordinates $(x, y) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$; in 3 (> 3) dimensions, it is also called (hyper)spherical coordinates.

• Cylindrical coordinates in \mathbb{R}^d $(\rho, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_{n-1}, x_n, \theta_n)$ x_{n+1},\ldots,x_d) is a coordinate system such that a subset \mathbb{R}^n of the total space \mathbb{R}^d (for n < d) is converted into the polar coordinates. For instance, if we convert \mathbb{R}^2 of \mathbb{R}^3 into polar coordinates, we obtain the familiar 3d cylindrical coordinates, i.e. $(x, y, z) = (\rho \cos \theta, \rho \sin \theta, z)$.

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2 Classical questions

You need to show your derivation in this part.

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right)f(x) = g(x) \tag{37}$$

(a) **(6 points)** Let's say we are given the information that $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is a small constant, i.e. $a \ll 1$. Use the Taylor series definition of exponential and truncate in the second order in a, (i.e. impose $a^n = 0$ for $n \geq 3$). What is the homogeneous solution of this differential equation?

Solution 1.1 As $\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^i}{i!} \frac{d^i}{dx^i}$ and we impose $a^n = 0$ for $n \geq 3$, the differential

equation becomes

$$\left(1 + a\frac{d}{dx} + \frac{a^2}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right)f(x) = g(x)$$
(38)

The homogeneous solution to this differential equation can be found by solving the characteristic equation $r^2 + \frac{2}{a}r + \frac{2}{a^2} = 0$ (which has the roots $r_{\pm} = -\frac{1\pm i}{a}$), hence the homogeneous solution $f_h(x)$ is

$$f_h(x) = c_+ \exp\left(-\frac{1+i}{a}x\right) + c_- \exp\left(-\frac{1-i}{a}x\right)$$
(39)

for arbitrary complex numbers c_{\pm} . We can equivalently rewrite this using the Euler equation as

$$f_h(x) = c_1 e^{-x/a} \cos(x/a) + c_2 e^{-x/a} \sin(x/a)$$
 (40)

for $c_{1,2} \in \mathbb{R}$ as f(x) is real.

(b) (4 points) Is the behavior of the homogeneous solution in the limit $a \to 0$ consistent with the expectations from the form of the differential equation in that limit?

Solution 1.2 Clearly, we observe the behavior $\lim_{a\to 0} f_h(x) = 0$, which we can check with the sandwich theorem, i.e.

$$-\lim_{a \to 0} |f_h(x)| \le \lim_{a \to 0} f_h(x) \le \lim_{a \to 0} |f_h(x)| \tag{41}$$



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with $\lim_{a\to 0} |f_h(x)| < \lim_{a\to 0} (|c_1| + |c_2|)e^{-x/a} = 0$. This is consistent with the differential equation, i.e.

$$\lim_{a \to 0} \left[\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right) f(x) = 0 \right] = [1.f(x) = 0] \tag{42}$$

(c) (10 points) Let's keep focusing on small a case analyzed in the parts above. With $g(x) = \begin{cases} h(x) \text{ if } x > 0 \\ 0 \text{ if } x < 0 \end{cases}$ for an arbitrary function h(x), what is the formal expression for the particular solution in terms of h(x)?

Solution 1.3 We know that the particular solution for a linear, ordinary differential equation with constant coefficients such as

$$\left(1 + a\frac{d}{dx} + \frac{a^2}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right)f(x) = g(x)$$
(43)

takes the form of a convolution. Since we are given the nonhomogeneous piece is zero for x < 0, we can immediately write down

$$f_p(x) = \int_0^x i(y)h(x-y)dy \tag{44}$$

for the impulse response i(x) whose Laplace transform is one over characteristic equation, that is

$$\mathcal{L}\{i\}(s) = \frac{1}{\frac{a^2}{2}s^2 + as + 1} = \frac{2}{a^2} \frac{1}{s^2 + \frac{2}{a}s + \frac{2}{a^2}} = \frac{2}{a^2} \frac{1}{\left(s + \frac{1+i}{a}\right)\left(s + \frac{1-i}{a}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{i/a}{s + \frac{1+i}{a}} - \frac{i/a}{s + \frac{1-i}{a}}$$
(45)

Therefore

$$i(x) = \frac{i}{a}e^{-\frac{1+i}{a}x} - \frac{i}{a}e^{-\frac{1-i}{a}x} = \frac{2e^{-x/a}}{a}\sin(x/a)$$
(46)

Thus the particular solution is

$$f_p(x) = \frac{2}{a} \int_0^x e^{-y/a} \sin(y/a) h(x-y) dy$$
 (47)

(d) (6 points) With the homogeneous and particular solutions found above, compute f(x) if we are given $h(x) = e^{-x/a}$, f(0) = 2, and $f\left(\frac{a\pi}{2}\right) = e^{-\pi/2}$.

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Solution 1.4 For $h(x) = e^{-x/a}$, the particular solution becomes

$$f_p(x) = \frac{2e^{-x/a}}{a} \int_0^x \sin(y/a) dy = \frac{2e^{-x/a}}{a} \left(-a\cos(y/a) \right) \Big|_0^x = 2e^{-x/a} \left(1 - \cos(x/a) \right)$$
 (48)

therefore

$$f(x) = c_1 e^{-x/a} \cos(x/a) + c_2 e^{-x/a} \sin(x/a) + 2e^{-x/a} (1 - \cos(x/a))$$
(49)

We see that $f(0) = c_1$, hence the given information fixes $c_1 = 2$, reducing the expression to the form

$$f(x) = c_2 e^{-x/a} \sin(x/a) + 2e^{-x/a}$$
(50)

This then implies $f(a\pi/2) = e^{-\pi/2}(c_2 + 2)$, which then fixes $c_2 = -1$ with the other boundary condition. We are then left with the full solution:

$$f(x) = e^{-x/a} (2 - \sin(x/a))$$
(51)

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right)f(x) = g(x) \tag{52}$$

This time however, we are not allowed to take a to be small constant: we only know that $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

(a) (6 points) Use the infinite Taylor series definition of the exponential function to solve the differential equation for the special case g(x) = 0.

Solution 2.1 We know that, by definition

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \tag{53}$$

which then implies

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right)f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!} \frac{d^n f(x)}{dx^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}$$
(54)

This is actually the Taylor series expansion for f(x + a) around the point x! For instance, note that

$$f(x+3) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^n f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}$$
 (55)

where the above expression is simply a generalization of this. We therefore conclude that the



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differential equation

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right)f(x) = 0\tag{56}$$

is actually equivalent to

$$f(x+a) = 0 (57)$$

Since this is true for any x, there is no nontrivial solution, the only solution is f(x) = 0.

(b) (2 points) Solve the general case where g(x) is any arbitrary function!

Solution 2.2 In the previous part, we have shown that

$$\exp\left(a\frac{d}{dx}\right)f(x) = f(x+a) \tag{58}$$

therefore the differential equation becomes

$$f(x+a) = g(x) \tag{59}$$

which means that the most general solution f(x) for any arbitrary function g(x) is

$$f(x) = g(x - a) \tag{60}$$

« « « Congratulations, you have made it to the end! » » »

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