

## Problem Set 2

### Problem 1, 1.4.7

By linearity of the equation  $-u'' = f$ , we get a general solution for  $f(x) = \delta(x - \frac{1}{3}) - \delta(x - \frac{2}{3})$  by adding up the general solutions  $-R(x - \frac{1}{3}), R(x - \frac{2}{3})$  (ramps) for right-hand sides  $\delta(x - \frac{1}{3}), -\delta(x - \frac{2}{3})$  and a general solution of  $u'' = 0, x \mapsto Ax + B$ , for  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ . Fitting this to the boundary conditions yields  $u'(0) = A = 0$  and  $u'(1) = A = 0$ , so  $A = 0$  is sufficient to satisfy both of them. Hence,

$$u(x) = R(x - \frac{1}{3}) - R(x - \frac{2}{3}) + B = \begin{cases} B, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{3}, \\ B - (x - \frac{1}{3}), & \frac{1}{3} < x \leq \frac{2}{3}, \\ B - \frac{1}{3}, & \frac{2}{3} < x \leq 1, \end{cases} \quad B \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (1)$$

### Problem 2, 1.4.9

$$u(x) = \int_0^x (1-x)a \, da + \int_x^1 (1-a)x \, da = \frac{1}{2}(1-x)a^2 \Big|_0^x - \frac{1}{2}(1-a)^2x \Big|_x^1 \quad (2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - x^3 + (1-x)^2x) = \frac{1}{2}(x - x^2), \quad (3)$$

which is the solution to  $-u'' = 1$  for fixed-fixed boundary conditions from class.

### Problem 3, 1.4.11

Integrating with 0 as end-point yields

$$Q(x) = \int_0^x R(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0, \\ \frac{1}{2}x^2, & x > 0, \end{cases} \quad C(x) = \int_0^x Q(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0, \\ \frac{1}{6}x^3, & x > 0. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Since these functions are iterated integrals, they are derivatives of each other. By inspection,  $C'(x) = Q(x)$ ,  $C''(x) = R(x)$ ,  $C'''(x) = S(x)$ , so the first two derivatives are continuous, while the third one isn't.

We can plot C and Q with

```

1 x = linspace(-2, 2, 100);
2 plot(x, (x > 0).*0.5.*x.^2, x, (x > 0).*x.^3/6);
3 axis([-2 2 -0.5 2]);
4 legend('Q(x)', 'C(x)');
```

### Problem 4, 1.5.9

$$\Delta^T \Delta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = K_3, \quad (5)$$

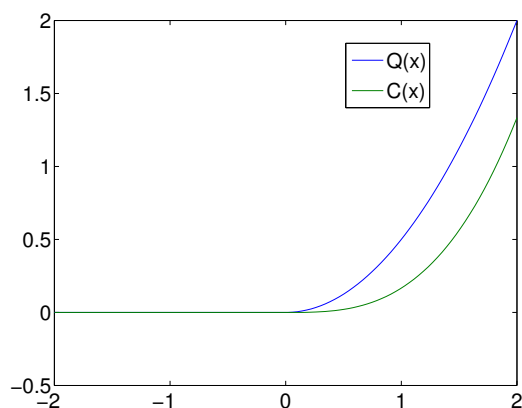


Figure 1: Plot of  $Q(x), C(x)$

$$\Delta \Delta^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = B_4 \quad (6)$$

And we can check using

```

1 e = ones(3,1);
2 DeltaMin = spdiags([e -e], [0, -1], 4, 3);
3 lambda1 = eig(DeltaMin*DeltaMin');
4 lambda2 = eig(DeltaMin'*DeltaMin);

```

that

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0000 \\ 0.5858 \\ 2.0000 \\ 3.4142 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5858 \\ 2.0000 \\ 3.4142 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (7)$$

### Problem 5, 1.6.3

For any matrix  $A$ ,  $A^T A$  will at least be positive semi-definite by

$$u^T A^T A u = \|Au\|^2 \geq 0, \quad u \in V. \quad (8)$$

On the other hand, Gaussian elimination of  $A$  yields

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (9)$$

from where we see that  $\ker A = \text{span}\{(1 \ 1 \ 1)^T\}$ . For elements  $u$  in that span, we'll also have  $Cu = A^T A u = 0$ , and by (8), these are all the elements in  $\ker C$ . Therefore,  $C$  is only positive semi-definite.

### Problem 6, 1.6.9

Let's call the first  $A$   $A_1$  and the second one  $A_2$ . We have that the first upper left determinant of the first  $A_1$  is  $1 > 0$ , and  $\det(A_1) = 9 - b^2 > 0 \Leftrightarrow |b| < 3$ , so it is positive definite for these  $b$ . For the  $A_2$ , the upper left determinant is  $2 > 0$ , and  $\det(A_2) = 2c - 16 > 0 \Leftrightarrow c > -8$ , so for these  $c$ , it is positive definite.

Row reduction on  $A_1$  yields

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ b & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{row } 2 - b \times \text{row } 1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 9 - b^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

which means that the  $LDL^T$  decomposition is

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ b & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 - b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (11)$$

Similarly, row reducing  $A_2$  leads to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & c \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{row } 2 - 2 \times \text{row } 1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & c - 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (12)$$

so

$$A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & c - 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

### Problem 7, 1.6.20

First, note that with

$$O = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{we have } A = O\Lambda O^T \text{ and } O^T O = I. \quad (14)$$

By the multiplicativity of the determinant,  $\det(A) = \det(O) \det(\Lambda) \det(O^T)$ , and since  $1 = \det(O^T O)$ ,  $\det(O) = \det(O^T)^{-1}$ , so  $\det(A) = \det(\Lambda) = 10$ . Moreover, the eigenvectors of  $A$  are the column vectors of  $O$ , since multiplying either one of them with  $O^T$  first yields a vector of the standard basis (by orthogonality of  $O$ ), which is an eigenvector of  $\Lambda$ , that subsequently gets mapped back to the column of  $O$ . (In other words,  $AO = O\Lambda$ , which is an eigenvalue decomposition.) That means the eigenvector, eigenvalue pairs are

$$\lambda_1 = 2, \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_2 = 5, \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

$A$  is positive definite because all eigenvalues are  $> 0$ .

### Problem 8, Master Equations

a) Denoting  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_5)$ , the product becomes

$$DAD^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -16 & d_1 d_2^{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 16d_2 d_1^{-1} & -10 & 2d_2 d_3^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 9d_3 d_2^{-1} & -6 & 3d_3 d_4^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4d_4 d_3^{-1} & -4 & 4d_4 d_5^{-1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_5 d_4^{-1} & -4 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (16)$$

Setting the off-diagonals equal yields four equations,

$$d_1^2 = 16d_2^2, \quad 2d_2^2 = 9d_3^2, \quad 3d_3^2 = 4d_4^2, \quad 4d_4^2 = d_5^2. \quad (17)$$

Picking an arbitrary  $d_1 \neq 0$ , for example  $d_1 = 4$ , we can solve iteratively to get (as one possible choice out of many):

$$d_1 = 4, \quad d_2 = 1, \quad d_3 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3}, \quad d_4 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \quad d_5 = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, \quad (18)$$

which renders  $DAD^{-1}$  symmetric. An eigenvalue decomposition for this matrix,  $DAD^{-1} = O\Lambda O^T$  with  $O$  orthogonal, in turn yields one for  $A$ ,  $A = D^{-1}O\Lambda(D^{-1}O)^{-1}$ , so all eigenvalues of  $A$  are real.

## b) Executing the code

```
1 Ns = [5, 50, 100];
2 for N = Ns
3     b = 0:N-1;
4     f = b.^2;
5     f = fliplr(f);
6     s = b+f;
7     A = spdiags([f' -s' b'], [-1 0 1], N, N);
8     e = eig(full(A));
9     plot(e, '.');
10    title(sprintf('N = %i', N))
11    saveas(gcf, sprintf('p08-%i.eps', N), 'epsc');
12 end
```

yields

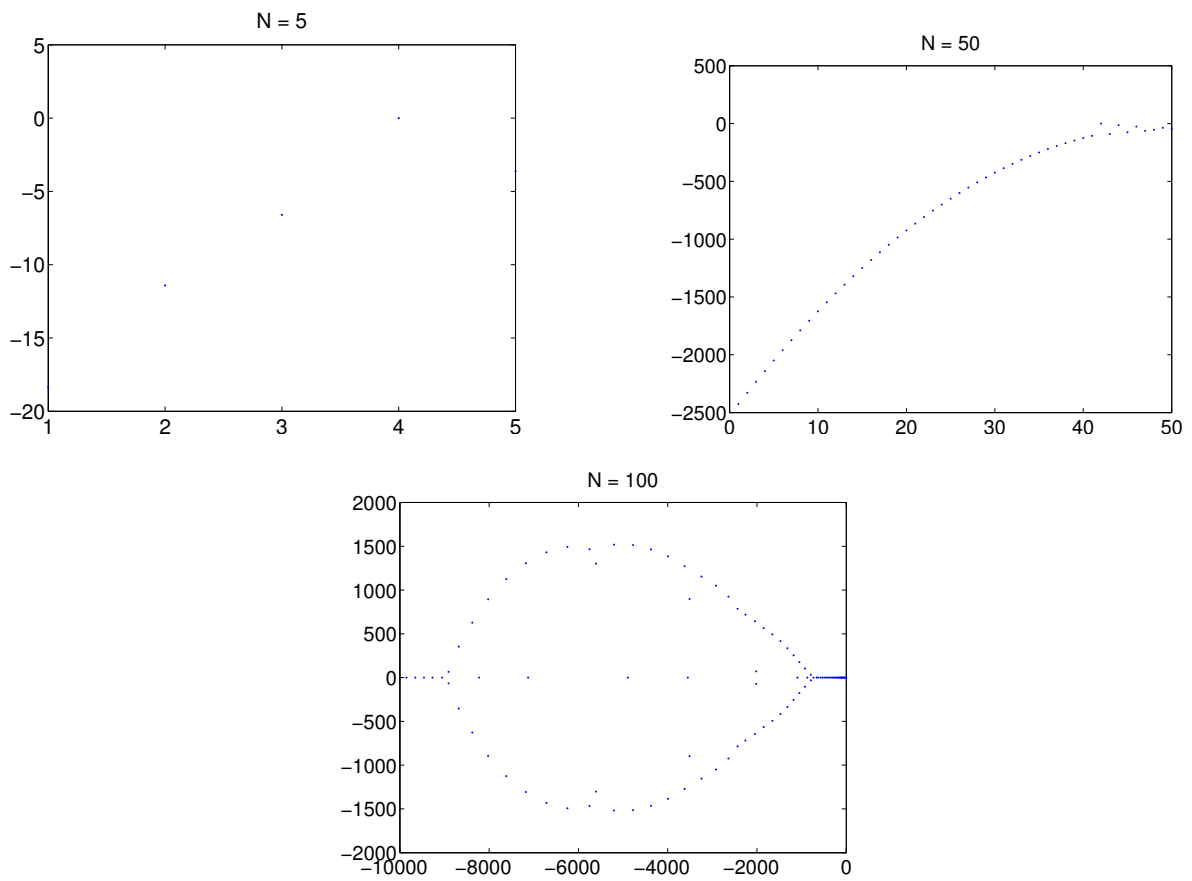


Figure 2: Eigenvalue plots